

THE MARCH OF HISTORY

FROM EARLIEST TIMES TO
PRESENT DAY

BY

G S. MAXTON, M A

AND

E H. DANCE, M A

Senior History Master, Wolverhampton Grammar School

M^c DOUGALL'S
EDUCATIONAL COY LTD

LONDON

8 FARRINGDON AVENUE, E.C.4

EDINBURGH

EAST CLAREMONT STREET

1931

FOREWORD

This book for senior classes gives a comprehensive survey of history from earliest times to the present day

While the main purpose has been to sketch the lives of men and women through the ages—their social activities, their institutions and then economic conditions—other important aspects of history, both national and international, have been given due prominence. The various sections—political, constitutional, social and economic—are so arranged as to enable the reader to obtain a clear view of a very wide field of human activity. In order, also, that he may do so with pleasure as well as profit interesting extracts and illustrations from contemporary sources have been woven into the text. The suggestions for further study together with the charts and exercises cannot fail to be of practical value.

In conclusion the authors would acknowledge the help given by Mr Birnie, Lecturer in Economic History at Edinburgh University, in reading the manuscript and proofs.

G S M
E H D

Contents

5

PAGE

20	OTHER ASPECTS OF LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES With Extracts from a <i>Statute</i> on Sport and from the <i>Oxford Coroners' Rolls</i>	122
21	STORM AND STRESS IN ENGLAND SCOTLAND IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES—	126
22	I To the Reformation	130
23	II Social Life <i>Time-Chart</i> (1000–End of Middle Ages)	133 138–139

PART III

SOCIAL AND INTELLECTUAL PROGRESS

24	AN AGE OF CHANGE AND DISCOVERY With Extract from Froude's <i>History of England</i>	140
25	STRENGTHENING THE GOVERNMENT	151
26	CHANGE IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY	157
27	ELIZABETHAN ENGLAND With Extract from Froude's <i>History of England</i>	163
28	SCOTLAND BEFORE THE UNION OF THE CROWNS <i>Time Chart</i> (Middle Ages to Union of Crowns)	167 169–170

PART IV

THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENTARY POWER

29	ENGLAND UNDER THE STEWARTS With Extract from Macaulay's <i>History of England</i>	171
30	SOCIAL LIFE IN STEWART ENGLAND With Extracts from <i>The Book of Sports</i> and <i>The Spectator</i>	180
31	TRADE AND COLONISATION IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY <i>Time Chart</i> (The Seventeenth Century)	193 199
32	ENGLAND AFTER THE REVOLUTION With Extract from William Cowper	200

PART V

ECONOMIC CHANGE AND THE RISE OF DEMOCRACY

33	THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION	205
34	THE REVOLUTION IN TRANSPORT With Extracts from Arthur Young and the <i>Greville Memoirs</i>	213

35.	THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION	
	With Extract from the Journals of the House of Commons, 1766	221
36	THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND ITS CONSEQUENCES	226
37	THE ROMANTIC MOVEMENT IN ENGLISH LITERATURE	231
38	DIFFUSION, REPRESSION AND REFORM	233
39	POLITICS AND THE PEOPLE	239
40	FACIORY ACTS AND POOR RELIEF	
	With Extracts from the Report of the Factory Commissioners, 1833, and Disraeli's <i>Sybil</i>	241
41	TOWN LIFE IN THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY	
	With Extracts from Mrs. Gaskell's <i>Mary Barton</i> and Disraeli's <i>Sybil</i>	248
42	THE CORN LAWS AND FREE TRADE	253
43	IRELAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH AND NINETEENTH CENTURIES	258
44	THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY	
	With Extract from Lord Dufferin's <i>Report on Canada</i>	262
45	A HUNDRED YEARS OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION	271
46.	LITERATURE OF VICTORIAN AND MODERN TIMES	279
47	EDUCATION IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY	284
48	WORKERS, WAGES AND PRICES	287
49	THE WORLD BEFORE AND AFTER THE GREAT WAR	291
50	TO DAY	298
51	THE LESSONS OF HISTORY	
	With Extract from Macaulay's <i>History of England</i>	308
	<i>Time-Chart</i> (The Eighteenth Century)	310
	<i>Time-Chart</i> (The Nineteenth Century)	311-312
	<i>Time-Chart</i> (The Twentieth Century)	313

APPENDICES.

PROMINENT PERSONAGES (<i>Chart</i>)	314-315
SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC TENDENCIES AND MOVEMENTS (<i>Chart</i>)	316-317
INDIVIDUAL STUDY	318
REFERENCE BOOKS FOR TEACHERS	329
INDEX	330

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

	PAGE
EXCAVATING A FOSSIL REPTILE (<i>CORYTHOSAURUS</i>) IN ALBERTA (<i>Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History</i>)	12
THE SKELITON AND RECONSTRUCTION OF ONE OF THE LATEST EXTINCT REPTILES (<i>TYRANNOSAURUS</i>) WITH (FOR COMPARISON) THE SKELETON OF A MODERN HORSE	12
THE EDGE OF THE GREENLAND ICE CAP	14
THE EARLIEST TYPE OF MAN FOUND IN GREAT BRITAIN (<i>British Museum, Natural History</i>)	15
NATIVE OF MELANESIA AND ABORIGINE OF ARNHEM LAND (<i>From photos</i>)	16
ENGRAVING MADE BY PREHISTORIC MAN ON CAVE WALL AT LA LOJA, CANTABRIA, IN SPAIN (<i>From a photo</i>)	16
EXCAVATING A STONE AGE VILLAGE AT SKARA BRAE, ORKNEY (<i>From a photo</i>)	18
AN AIR PHOTO SHOWING ANCIENT BRITISH FIELDS NEAR WINCHESTER (<i>By permission of Ordnance Survey</i>)	20
ROMAN LONDON (<i>From a conjectural restoration in the London Museum</i>)	24-25
A SCENE IN AN EARLY ENGLISH SETTLEMENT (<i>From the picture, "The Age of Iron" by F. Common</i>)	30
THE STOCKADED HOME OF AN ANGLO-SAXON FARMER	32
HAROLD SWARS TO RECOGNISE WILLIAM'S CLAIM TO THE THRON OF ENGLAND (<i>From the Bayeux Tapestry</i>)	50
WILLIAM I GRANTING A CHARTER TO THE CITIZENS OF LONDON (<i>From the printing by Seymour Lucas R.A., in the Royal Exchange</i>)	53
A VILLAGE PRIOR TO THE TIME OF THE NORMAN CONQUEST (<i>Reconstruction by G. Merry</i>)	64 65
PLOUGHING WITH OXEN IN THE ELEVENTH CENTURY (<i>Cotton MS</i>)	70
REAPERS AND OVERSEER (<i>From an early fourteenth century MS, now known as Queen Mary's Psalter</i>)	72
CUTTING AND CARTING TIMBER (<i>Cotton MS</i>)	75
WEIGHING COIN AT THE EXCHEQUER BEFORE THE KING (<i>From Edmund's Psalter, 1130-74</i>)	77

CRUSADERS ATTACKING A WALLED TOWN	(From a picture by C. Verlat)	82
A KNIGHT TEMPLAR (TWELFTH CENTURY)	(From the effigy of the Earl of Pembroke, Temple Church, London)	83
BODIAM CASTLE, SUSSEX	(From a photo)	90
CLERK KNIGHT, AND LABOURER	(From an initial letter in a thirteenth century MS. in the British Museum)	92
COUNTRY FOLK OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY	(From an old print)	94
A CONTEMPORARY INSCRIPTION ON THE WALL OF ASHWELL CHURCH, HERTS	(From a photo)	99
THE KING AND WAT TYLER	(From an illustration in Froissart's "Chronicles")	104
A MIDDLEVAL STREET SCENE	(Drawn by Gordon Browne from contemporary sources)	105
PERFORMING A MIRACLE PLAY—THE AUDIENCE AND THE ACTORS	(Reconstructed from contemporary sources by Gordon Browne)	114
BEHIND THE SCENES AT THE MIRACLE PLAY	(Reconstructed from contemporary sources by Gordon Browne)	116
A FORESTALLER IN THE PILLORY	(Based on a sixteenth century print)	119
WYCLIFFE SENDING OUT HIS PREACHERS	(From the picture by W. F. Yeames)	120
A PORTRAIT OF A WITCH	(From an old print in the Victoria and Albert Museum)	123
A SCHOOLMASTER AND HIS BOOKS	(From Barclay's "Ship of Fools")	125
JOAN OF ARC	(From the wall-picture by Lenepren in the Pantheon, Paris)	128
THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ARCHERY	(From the Luttrell Psalter)	134
THE CRAFT GILD EXAMINATION OF A MASON AND A CARPENTER	(From a MS in the British Museum)	136
PART OF ONE OF THE EARLIEST BOOKS PRINTED IN ENGLAND	(From Caxton's "The Dictes and Sayengis of the Philosophres," 1477)	142
THE PINTA—ONE OF THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS	(Drawn from a model)	146
LOOKING OVER THE EDGE OF THE WORLD	(From an old print)	148

List of Illustrations

9

PAGE

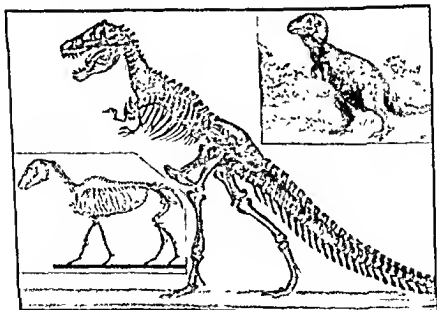
A SURGICAL OPERATION IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY	
(From an old print)	149
QUEEN ELIZABETH	(From a contemporary engraving) 154
ENGLISH SHIPS PURSUING THE SPANISH ARMADA	(From an engraving by John Pine, taken from tapestry in the old House of Lords) 156
PLOUGHING AN OPEN FIELD	(‘Boke of Agriculture, 1526’) 157
A SHEPHERD PLAYING THE BAGPIPES	(Jascny’s Edition of Lyndsay 1558) 159
THE ‘ARK ROYAL’—BUILT BY RALEIGH FOR PRIVATE ENTERPRISE	(From a wood cut) 162
AN ELIZABETHAN MANSION—MORETON OLD HALL, CHESHIRE	(By permission of ‘Country Life’) 164
PLAN OF EDINBURGH IN THE LATTER HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY	(From ‘ <i>Civitates Orbis Terrarum</i> ’ Braun and Hohenberg published in 1580) 167
ROUNDHEAD AND CAVALIER	(Drawn by Gordon Browne) 174
PART OF AN OLD PLAN OF LONDON SHOWING THE EFFECTS OF THE GREAT FIRE OF 1666	(From an engraving by Bowen of about 1770 from Maundrell’s ‘London’) 177
A POST BOY IN THE MIDDLE OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY	(From a wood cut in the ‘London Post’) 183
A PEDLAR	(From a wood-cut) 184
COFFEE HOUSE GOSSIP	(From a satirical print of 1733) 188
THE OLD EAST INDIA WHARF LONDON BRIDGE	(From a picture by Peter Mosamy (1670-1749) in the Victoria and Albert Museum) 193
A VIEW OF NEW YORK IN 1746	(From a print by Harris) 195
A STREET SCENE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY	(From a print by Houlandson) 197
AN EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURY COACH	(From an engraving by Kay) 198
MINING OPERATIONS IN THE LATE SIXTEENTH CENTURY	(From Georg Agricola’s ‘ <i>De Re Metallica</i> ’ 1556) 208
A SMELTING HOUSE IN 1786	(From an old print) 210
A STAGE WAGON	(From a contemporary print) 215

LIST OF MAPS AND PLANS

	PAGE
WHAT EUROPE MAY HAVE LOOKED LIKE AT THE HEIGHT OF THE GREAT ICE AGE	13
THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT THE TIME OF ITS GREATEST EXTENT IN THE REIGN OF THE EMPEROR TRAJAN 98 117 A.D.	22
ROMAN BRITAIN	23
THE CITY OF LONDON IN THE TIME OF THE SAXONS ABOUT THE YEAR 1000 A.D. (<i>From a conjectural plan prepared about the end of the eighteenth century and "compiled from authentic documents"</i>)	41
GROUND PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL MONASTERY (FOUNTAINS ABBEY, YORKSHIRE)	43
GROUND PLAN OF CARRVAYON CASTLE A TYPICAL NORMAN STRONGHOLD BUILT 1285 1322	63
PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL VILLAGE SHOWING CULTIVATION BY THE THREE FIELDS SYSTEM	66
ELEVATION AND PLAN OF A THIRTEENTH CENTURY COTTAGE (<i>Based on C. G. Coulton's The Medieval Village</i>)	68
PLAN OF A TOWN—JEICPSTER—IN THE MIDDLE AGES	109
A MAP OF THE WORLD FROM A GLOBE PRODUCED IN 1492	145
ENGLAND BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (1700)	204
ENGLAND AFTER THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (1930)	204
PART OF A MAP OF HILFORD OXFORDSHIRE, IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY SHOWING OILY AND ENCLOSED FIELDS (<i>Section of Henry 8th Manorial Map</i>)	222
NAPOLÉON'S EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT (1810)	229
GROWTH OF CANADA AND NEWFOUNDLAND	263
GROWTH OF SOUTH AFRICA	266
GROWTH OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE	268
MORRIS ARCTIC EXPLORATION	304
MODERN ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION	305



EXCAVATING A FOSSIL REPTILE (CORYTHOSAURUS) IN ALBERTA.
(Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History)



THE SKELETON AND RECONSTRUCTION OF ONE OF THE LARGEST EXTINCT REPTILES (MYLONOSAURUS) WITH (FOR COMPARISON) THE SKELETON OF A MODERN HOUSE



WHAT EUROPE MAY HAVE LOOKED LIKE AT THE HEIGHT OF THE GREAT ICE AGE

Note.—During the Glacial Periods the land sank far below its present level and rose again during the Inter Glacial Periods.

The lines show (in black and (here under the Ice Cap) by dots) the sea by horizontal lines and (here under the Ice Cap) in white. The present coastline is shown for the sake of comparison. It will be noted that the land during the Great Ice Age consisted mainly of what is higher ground to day.

PART I

THE WELDING OF THE NATION

1—WHEN THE WORLD WAS YOUNG

Millions of years ago when the world was young it was inhabited by a race of scaly animals, some of huge size and terrifying aspect, called reptiles. From fossilised remains and footprints which have been found in

stone, it is certain that some of these haunted that part of Europe in which we live. At that time there were no British Islands, for our country formed part of the land-mass of the Continent.



THE EDGE OF THE GREENLAND ICE CAP.

The Ice Age.

As the years rolled on the climate became colder and, whether due to this change or not, these reptiles gradually disappeared. This marked the beginning of the era known as the Ice or Glacial Age. The cold, however, was not continuous. Long periods of extreme cold alternated with equally long milder periods. During the longest of these cold periods, known as the "Great Ice Age," not only our own country as far south as the Thames, but the whole of Northern Europe was buried beneath an enormous ice-sheet very much as Greenland is to-day. During the continuance of the Ice Age a great

part of our country was several times submerged beneath the sea and as often raised again, and the traces of the ancient beaches can still be seen on our hillsides

With the coming of the Ice Age a new race of animals



THE EARLIEST TYPE OF MAN FOUND IN GREAT BRITAIN

SKULL FOUND AT PILTDOWN SUSSEX IMPLEMENTS OF FLINT (8 INCHES LONG)
AND BONE (16 INCHES LONG) FOUND WITH IT

(*British Museum Natural History*)

more like the animals which exist to day took the place of the reptiles. Among them were the straight tusked elephant, the hippopotamus the sabre toothed tiger the buffalo the horse, bison, stag the brown and cave bear, while during the colder periods there appeared the mammoth the woolly rhinoceros the reindeer and the musk ox

Early Man—The Old Stone Age

A most interesting question which has often been asked

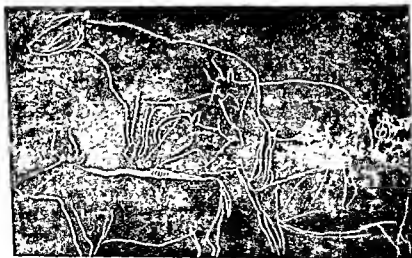


NATIVE OF MELANESIA.



ABORIGINE OF ARNHEN LAND.

Akin to Stone Age Man.



ENGRAVING MADE BY PREHISTORIC MAN ON CAVE WALL AT
LA LOJA, CANTABRIA, IN SPAIN.

but which cannot be precisely answered, is, "When did man first make his appearance in our country?" All that can be said is that the earliest traces of human life date from before the beginning of the Ice Age. These traces consist of very rudely chipped flints, found intermingled with the bones of animals, suggesting that they were made for the purpose of killing. The oldest human remains show a man of small stature, with a low projecting forehead and a receding chin, a creature just a little higher in the scale of creation than the apes. This primitive man knew nothing of agriculture, had no industries, and subsisted entirely by hunting. During the warmer periods he probably lived in the open, but as the colder times advanced he took to the shelter of caves. These "cave-men" have left many evidences of their existence in Britain, and because they used rough stone implements, such as arrow and spear heads, the era in which they lived is regarded as the earliest period of what has been called the Old Stone Age.

During the long ages (perhaps hundreds of thousands of years) in which these Old Stone Age or Paleolithic men existed, they made progress both in physical development and in the arts. In later times their spear and arrow heads and other implements were much better made than formerly, while such utensils as bone needles were beautifully carved. On the walls of their caves, too, they have left us faithful and spirited pictures of the animals, some of them now extinct, which existed in their time. Indeed, some think that these later Paleolithics were people of another and superior race to the brutish ape-man of the early Stone Age.

However that may be, Paleolithic man, after existing in our country possibly for hundreds of thousands of years,

disappeared, being gradually swept away by the ice sheet of the Great Ice Age, which seems to have destroyed all animal life in Northern Europe.



EXCAVATING A STONE AGE VILLAGE AT SKARA BRAE, ORKNEY.

The New Stone Age.

As the Ice Age passed away a new race of men appeared in Northern Europe, differing from the old not so much in the implements they used as in their mode of life. The implements of these New Stone Age or Neolithic people were more numerous, and much better made, than those of the Old Stone Age men. Moreover, the Neolithics were not merely homeless wanderers and hunters, but cultivated the land, kept flocks and herds, and possessed nearly all the domestic animals which we now know. They lived in circular earthen or stone huts, and sometimes, for the sake of safety, they erected their

dwelling in marshes or lakes on platforms supported by piles. Remains of many of these huts or lake dwellings still exist. It was probably also towards the end of the New Stone Age (or immediately afterwards) that the many huge stone circles, of which Stonehenge is the most notable example, were erected.

The Metallic Ages

These later Neolithic people were overwhelmed by a race of invaders from the Continent known as Celts. The Celts were tall strong men of fair complexion and reddish hair, and their victory was probably due to their superior weapons, which were made of bronze instead of stone or flint. This period in consequence is known as the Bronze Age. It was succeeded by the Iron Age when a later wave of invading Celts, the Brythons or Britons, drove the first comers, the Goidels or Gaeles, into the western and northern parts of the island.

2—EARLY BRITONS AND THEIR HOMES

Let us transport ourselves in thought back two thousand years. We see a Briton at work building a house for himself and his family. He is dressed in coarse cloth or the hide of a deer. His tools are very crude and to us appear somewhat ridiculous. His axe and hammer are not very big, but are made of iron, while some chisels of stone may be observed lying on the ground. With his axe he has been able to clear an open space in the dense forest, and with the wood that he has cut down he is erecting a hut of sticks, mud and branches. It is a small hut, there is no furniture to be placed inside but only the skins of wolves and

fire is kept continually burning for at night it will protect them against wild bears and other beasts of prey.

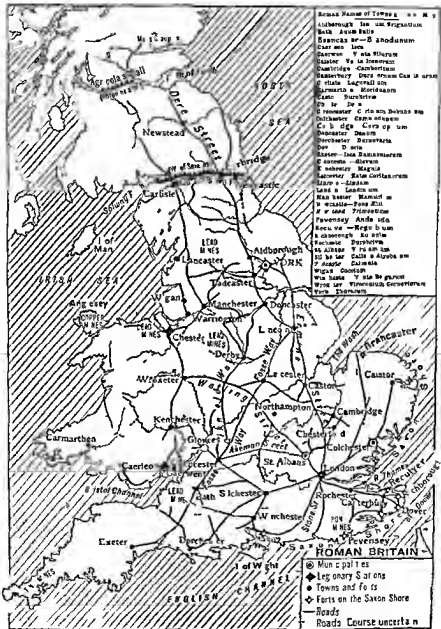
His neighbours who are probably all relatives of his are also building and gradually a little settlement appears. After finishing their houses they surround the settlement with a stockade of tree trunks and branches with a deep ditch on the outside.

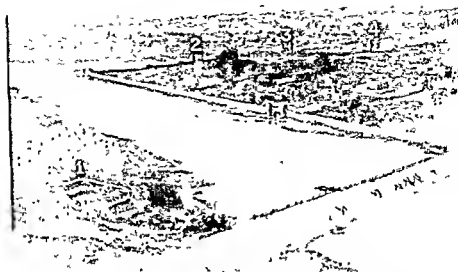
Not far away but right in the middle of a small lake other Britons are at work. Some are sailing in canoes and carrying beams, branches and stones from the shore. Others are driving piles into the mud of the lake while a few are sinking stones in order to support the piles. The tops of these are now just above the level of the water and the workmen (it seems strange to call them workmen) stop and rest. Some take the opportunity of refreshing themselves with their favourite drink—a wine made chiefly from honey.

Work is then resumed. A platform is placed upon the piles and on this a hut is erected. Uprights are placed in position and sticks and branches of trees are interwoven to form the sides and the roof. A bridge or causeway is then constructed to connect the house with the shore. This is slight and fragile but there will be no disadvantage since it can be the more easily destroyed should the house be attacked. As we turn to go we see a warrior making a canoe by hollowing the trunk of a tree which he has felled. When this canoe is ready the lake dwelling of the early Briton will be complete.

Further Reading and Reference

For detailed accounts read—*Eryda's Life in the Old Stone Age*
Everyday Life in the New Stone, Bronze and Early Iron Ages—
 Quenell





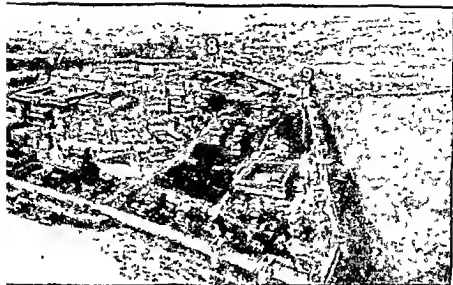
ROMAN LONDON. (From a conjecture)

1. South Work. 2. Ludgate. 3. Newgate. 4. Aldersgate. 5. City.

against Cæsar. A resolve to end this assistance and doubtless the desire for further conquest led to the coming of the Roman. Though meeting with stout opposition from the Britons, Cæsar effected a landing; and in the following year he returned and penetrated some distance inland, but made no permanent settlement. It was not till A.D. 43 that the Romans began the systematic conquest of Britain. Within sixteen years they had conquered the island south of the Humber. Many of the South Britons fled north, while the mountains of Wales also afforded shelter to the retreating natives.

Roman Britain.

The Romans immediately set to work to shape the country in accordance with their ideals of civilisation (see



tion in the London Museum)

er Wharves, 7 Basilica and Forum, 8 Bishopsgate 9 Aldgate.

map, page 23). They rebuilt the towns on Roman models, encouraged trade with the Continent, and opened up the country by means of great roads. Watling Street,¹ which might be regarded as a continuation of the road from Rome across Europe, went from Dover through London to Chester; the Fosse Way from Lincoln to Exeter; Ermine Street from London to York; and West Road from London to Winchester. But it was not without harshness that Roman civilisation was established in our country. Goaded to fury by the tyranny of the conquerors, the ill-fated British Queen Boudicca (or Boadicea) led a host of Britons in revolt, but the rising was crushed with great severity.

The Romans did not penetrate to Scotland till A.D. 80 and never succeeded in really conquering that country,

¹ Note —These names were given to the Roman roads by the Saxons.

but the Roman general Agricola constructed a line of forts from the Firth of Forth to the Clyde to keep back the Caledonians. A rampart, at first probably of turf, was also built by the Emperor Hadrian between the Tyne and the Solway: another only of turf with a stone foundation was erected by order of the Emperor Antoninus on the same line as Agricola's forts; as was also a stone wall by Severus on the site of Hadrian's rampart.

Essex, East Anglia, Northumbria, and Mercia. These, after a period of rivalry, were united under one overlord, Egbert, whose grandson, Alfred, is one of the great figures of our history.

But the English (for Angles and Saxons were called Angle or English alike) were not allowed to remain in peace. In turn they were subjected to attacks by the fierce Danes or Northmen, who harried the shores of almost every country in Europe. Only the skill and cleverness of many able English leaders and kings, of whom Alfred is the most famous, held them in check. Even then they gained the north-eastern part of the country. It was called the Danelaw to distinguish it from the part where English laws and customs prevailed.

The work of Alfred and his immediate successors, however, was undone by the weak rule of a later king, Ethelred the Redeless, and at the beginning of the eleventh century the Danes conquered the whole land. But they did not hold their conquests long. Soon after the death of the Danish king, Knut, a council of wise men called the Witan selected as his successor Edward (called the Confessor), the son of Ethelred the Redeless, so that an English king again sat on the throne. But on his death in 1066 power was again wrested from the English by William of Normandy, who became the first Norman king of England.

Early Scotland

By this time Scotland had moulded itself into a single kingdom. Before this there had been four principal divisions—Pictland, the home of the Picts, Dalriada, a kingdom founded by Scots who came from Ireland, Strathclyde, consisting at its greatest extent of the land

from the Clyde to the Mersey, and inhabited by Britons; and Bernicia, in which the Angles had settled. The Scots and the Britons were akin in race, for they were both Celts; the Angles, as we shall see later, came from the banks of the river Elbe in Germany. Who the Picts were we cannot say with certainty. Undoubtedly they spoke the same Gaelic language that the Scots used, but whether they adopted it from the Scots or had used it before the Scots came over from Ireland is not quite clear. On the whole it seems most probable that they also were chiefly a Celtic people.

Of the four kingdoms that of Dalriada was to play the most important part in the shaping of early Scotland. In 844 Kenneth Macalpin, king of the Scots, became king of Pictland as well, while in 1018 Malcolm II., who was one of Kenneth's successors, defeated the Angles in a great battle at Carham near the Tweed, and annexed the northern part of their country—Lothian—including not merely the three counties now so called, but all south-east Scotland. In the same year Strathclyde was annexed, and thus about fifty years before the coming of William the Conqueror to England we find Scotland on the way to becoming a united kingdom.

4.—HOW OUR TEUTONIC FOREFATHERS LIVED.

The English in Germany.

Beak, low-lying lands at the mouth of the Elbe and Weser in Germany formed the homeland of the English invaders. If you look at a map you may see in a part of Germany called Schleswig lying just south of the Danish frontier a district marked "Angeln," which is simply another form of the name "England." This

shows the early close connection between our country and the Baltic and North Sea shores of Europe

Details of the early life of the English are given by the great Roman historian Tacitus in his book called the *Germania*. He tells us that the Saxons had fierce blue eyes red hair, and tall forms, and probably on account of the hardness of the climate and the soil were accustomed to cold and hunger. Of their manners and customs we ourselves can judge from the fascinating story of 'Beowulf

The Story of Beowulf

No one can tell the authorship of this great saga. It is a folk legend, expressing the fears, beliefs and superstitions of a people. It probably had many authors for, although it was committed to writing in the ninth century, it had previously been handed down by word of mouth from generation to generation. When the hunt was over or the day's toil in the field was done the warriors would gather in the great hall drink the flowing mead and listen to the scop or minstrel singing of the warlike deeds of their great chieftains. Of one such chieftain we are given a picture in *Beowulf*.

We are first told of the building of a hall or mead house at Heorot by Hrothgar a hall greater than children of men ever heard of. Always was the sound of the harp heard there mingling in harmony with the clear song of the gleeman for the warriors lived in joy and plenty. But a monster named Grendel appeared and carried off the nobles or Athelings in their sleep to his lair among the fens. Desolation took the place of cheer. Then the hero Beowulf arrived fought the monster and



A SCENE IN AN EARLY ENGLISH SETTLEMENT.

(From the picture, "The Age of Iron," by F. Cormon.)

forced him to retire sorely wounded to his lair to die. Revels were held in celebration of the victory, and happiness once more returned to Heorot.

But the joy was shortlived. The mother of Grendel, "a

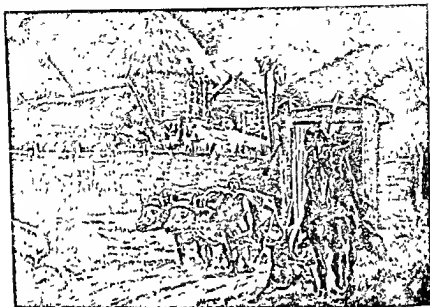
monster wife fated to dwell midst the waters terrors in the cold streams arrived and carried off one of Hrothgar's comrades. Then was Beowulf called upon to avenge the deed. Away over the wolf fells and perilous fenways went Beowulf and his men until they reached a dark pool at the bottom of which dwelt the monster. Beowulf plunged into the water and we are told swam for a whole day until he reached the fiend's cave. Then began a mighty struggle in which the monster received his death blow and the name of the Beowulf became the symbol of strength and heroism among men.

Such is the epic story of Beowulf—a story which originated over the seas in the early homes of the English and was carried to our own land.

How the English settled in our Country

When the English arrived in our country they did not come in huge invading hosts but in small bands or families. As each family or group of families settled it surrounded its homesteads with a moat for protection against attack. The settlement thereafter generally took its name from the name of the settlers. For example where the Harlings settled the village became known as Harlingtun or Harlington both of which simply mean the town of the Harlings. Large cities such as we have to-day were hateful to the early English and under their rule the towns which the Romans had built were destroyed or abandoned and the great roads which they had constructed fell into decay.

The settlers were divided into two classes the free and the unfree. The freemen consisted of the ceorls and eorls whose names remain in modern English but with greatly altered meanings as churls and carls."



THE STOCKADED HOME OF AN ANGLO-SAXON FARMER.

The *eorl* was one who had the privilege of bearing a weapon. He was called the "free-necked man" or the "weaponed man." The *eorl* was superior to him and was reckoned to be of noble descent. But even the *eorl* was a freeholder, that is, he possessed land. To begin with there were no kings, the leaders being *eorls* or *caldormen*. In later years when kingdoms began to be established throughout the country the kings were chosen from these *caldormen*.

The Saxons as Farmers.

The English came over to Britain as warriors. In a comparatively short time they became a nation of farmers in many independent communities. Although an improvement on those of the early Britons, their houses were crudely constructed and were far inferior

to those of the Romanized Britons whom they drove to the west. They were built of sticks and mud, with roofs thatched with straw. Here and there a more pretentious house constructed of timber might be observed, usually belonging to the eorl or leader.

Each community, guarded as it was from outside attack, and separated from its neighbours by waste and forest, naturally developed a large degree of independence. It satisfied practically all its wants, which were for the most part of a very simple nature, and included little more than the barest necessities of food, shelter and clothing. The occupations of the men were those of hunting and farming while the women engaged in spinning and weaving.

The fields and herds supplied the food, from their flocks they obtained wool, which the women spun and wove into cloth. With this a cloak was made, which was worn fastened sometimes by a kind of clasp, sometimes by a thorn. From the waste land where their swine fed on acorns and mast they gathered wood for building and fuel. Meat was derived from cattle and venison from deer, and salt is said to have been obtained even in those days. If there was no sugar there was an abundance of honey. They ate such wild fruit as they could find, and it is probable that they would taste of the cherry and the vine which were introduced to our country by the Romans.

Outside the moat or stockade protecting the village lay the plough land and pasture land, and these in turn were separated from the neighbouring community by a "mark" or border of waste or forest land. To day the word 'march' is used instead of mark to denote the boundary line, and every year in certain towns the ceremony of riding the marches is carried out.

At frequent intervals the villagers met around a

Under the former system he had to bring forward a number of witnesses of good reputation who swore that the accused was not the kind of man likely to commit the offence charged against him. Sometimes they stated that of their own knowledge he was innocent. The prisoner was then set free.

But sometimes a man could not obtain compurgators, and then he had to clear himself by *ordel* or "judgment," that is to say, the judgment of God. He might be required to walk blindfolded and barefooted over red-hot ploughshares set at varying distances, or to plunge his hand into boiling water, or to grasp red-hot iron bars. If the wounds healed within a certain period the man was set free, but if not, it was supposed that God had declared him guilty. Another ordel was the swallowing of a piece of bread consecrated by a priest, which, it was believed, would choke the accused man if he were guilty.

But even if a man were found guilty, say, of murdering another, he was not in every case imprisoned or put to death. Usually he was fined and "wer-gild" or "man-money" had to be paid to the victim's relatives according to his social position. The murder of a king or ealdorman or king's thegn was assessed very highly, the wer-gild of the first being 7200 shillings, of the second 2400 shillings, and of the third 1200 shillings. On the other hand that of a ceorl was 200 shillings, and of a theow or slave nothing at all, although if anyone slew him he had to make amends to the theow's master. If a man himself could not find the money his family had to do so, and, failing the family, the community to which he belonged. In this way it was made the interest of all in a community to prevent a man from committing a crime.

In addition to the Town and Hundred Moots, there

was the *Folk-moot*. This was the great assembly of the tribe, or kingdom after kingdoms were set up, to which any person dissatisfied with decisions in the Hundred Moot could appeal. It was also the assembly which decided questions of peace and war, and we can imagine the excitement and rattling of arms when a declaration of war against another tribe or kingdom was made.

The Witan.

As the kingdoms grew larger it became almost impossible for all freemen to attend this court, so those who were regarded as the wisest among them were summoned as representatives. These "wisemen" consisted of the great nobles and clergy and of others selected by the king. They were called sometimes "the Witan," i.e. "the wise," or at greater length, the Assembly of the Wise, which in Old English was "the Witenagemot." When there came to be one kingdom of England these separate Witenagemots were united, while the separate Folk-moots became Shire-moots for the shires or counties into which England was divided. In its duties the Witan resembled very closely a combination of our Cabinet Ministry, our Superior Courts of Justice and our Parliament. It administered justice, made the laws, regulated taxation, and chose the ruler. For in those days it was not held that the king's eldest son was necessarily his heir. The Witan usually selected the member of the royal family who they thought would best lead the people, and sometimes they chose a king from an entirely different family.

As time went on many of the free ceorls sank to a lower position and became subject to the greater landowners. This was particularly noticeable in the

time of Alfred. As the thegns or lords grew stronger in power and increased their rights over the land, many of the old freeholders had to "bow their heads for bread" and become servants of the thegns. In some measure also the decline of the freeman was due to the invasion of the Northmen and the famines which resulted from their depredations. At the same time many freemen who were still comparatively well off "commended" themselves and their lands to a thegn. That is to say, they acknowledged him as their overlord and surrendered some of their rights to him. In return they received protection for themselves and their lands.

Such men were bound to serve the thegn in war should necessity arise. The kings often found this system a very useful one for organising their armies. But whatever his connection with his lord might be, every freeman was bound to obey the direct command of the king when he called out the *fryd* or national militia against the Northmen or other foes.

An Enterprising People.

Although the Northmen or Danes conquered much of the land, they did not alter to any great extent the daily life of the conquered people. As the historian, J. R. Green, writes—"England still remained England, the conquerors sank quietly into the mass of those around them." For the Danes were of nearly the same Teutonic blood as the English. They were, however, more enterprising, and with their arrival began a new growth of towns. In some cases these were formed from villages, in others from forts occupied by the Danish army. Many were built around monasteries, for the religious gatherings which took place each year at the

graves of saints and martyrs gave great opportunity for trade. Rivers also were important agents in the development of towns, for in an age when roads were few and bad, the rivers formed the main means of communication. Towns like York, Chester and Ipswich, which were important even in Roman times, owe their origin to the fact that they could be approached with the incoming tide by small sea-going vessels.

The Danes also encouraged foreign trade. The spirit of adventure was strong in them. From Norway they had sailed to Iceland, to Greenland, and it is said to the coast of Labrador, while by the rivers of Russia, the Caspian and the Black Sea they obtained the wares of Eastern countries. Through them England was brought into direct contact not merely with the immediate continent, but with the lands of the Mediterranean and the East, and it was perhaps through Danish influence that any merchant who had fared thrice over the sea by his own means was considered worthy to be a thegn.

Merchants travelled throughout the country selling their wares, many of which were the produce of far-off lands. In an old English dialogue written by an abbot called Aelfric, we are told they carried skins, silks, and costly gems, besides various garments and perfumes, wine and oil, metals such as gold, copper and tin, ivory and bronze. Sometimes they were accompanied by scholars who used to go from monastery to monastery in search of learning. The gleeman also delighted the village audiences with his harp and perhaps brought with him a dancing bear. And every house was open to the stranger—the only condition being that he delivered up his arms before entering.

5—THE RELIGION AND LITERATURE OF THE PEOPLE

The Druids

In early times heathenism reigned in our land The priests of the Britons were called Druids and they acted not only as priests but also as teachers and judges They were foremost in feeding the flames of rebellion against the Roman intruders

When the British warrior Queen
Bleeding from the Roman rods
Sought with an indignant mien
Counsel of her country's Gods

Sage beneath the spreading oak
Sat the Druid hoary chief
Every burning word he spoke
Full of rage and full of grief

Of the Druids Cæsar wrote

Beyond all things they are desirous to inspire a belief that men's souls do not perish but transmigrate after death from one individual to another and they hold that people are thereby most strongly urged to bravery as the fear of death is thus destroyed

Many strange and some cruel rites formed part of the British religion The Druids held the mistletoe in special reverence and cut it from the tree with a golden knife Men and women were sometimes burned alive as sacrifices to the Gods

The Beliefs of the Teutons

During the later years of the Roman occupation Christianity was introduced but the religion did not

40 The Religion and Literature of the People

take root except in Ireland. When the Teutons came to our shores they brought with them a heathen religion. They worshipped *Tiu*, the god of death, *Woden* (or *Odin*), the god of war, *Thor*, the god of thunder, and *Freya*, the goddess of peace, names which still live in Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. The name Saturday is probably derived from *Saetere*, the god of hate, while Sunday and Monday recall the worship of the sun and the moon.

Death on the field of battle was considered the most glorious ending to a man's life, for then it was believed he went to *Valhalla*, the hall of the heroes, and days and nights thereafter were spent in joyful feasting. On the other hand death out of conflict was despised as a "cow's death."

The early English believed in many legendary figures such as *Nicor*, the water-sprite, and *Weland the Smith*, of whom mothers used to tell their children. They used to say that *Weland* worked at a forge in a cave in Berkshire, but no one ever saw him. If a sword had to be sharpened or a horse shod it was left at the entrance to the cave with a piece of money. The customer then departed, and on returning later found the work completed and the money gone. Such beliefs persisted for many years even after the people had become Christians. Sir Walter Scott makes use of the story of *Weland* in *Kenilworth*.

The English become Christians.

The conversion of the English was due to the great Pope Gregory. The story of his meeting with the English boy-slaves in the Roman market-place is well known. The incident set him thinking, and knowing

42 The Religion and Literature of the People

successors became Christians, and by the end of the seventh century Christianity, at least in name, was established over the greater part of England.

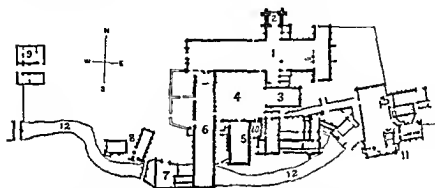
Some thirty years before the coming of Augustine a great priest of the Celtic Church, named Columba, arrived in Scotland from Ireland. He landed on the lonely little isle of Iona in Argyllshire, which soon became one of the most hallowed spots in the country. From there the Christian faith was spread throughout Scotland and into the north of England. But Celtic Christianity and Roman Christianity differed in many observances. In 664 at the Synod of Whitby it was decided that the whole of England should follow the observances of the Roman Church.

The Monasteries.

The Churchmen did not only preach. They were the teachers, doctors and manual instructors of the time. Monasteries sprang up which were the centres not only of learning, but also of handicraft, while they were havens of refuge for the poor and the sick. The monks were also model farmers, and did much to improve the cultivation of the soil. It is interesting to think of the quiet industry carried on in the monasteries in an age when civilisation was of a very rude kind.

Students regarded the monasteries as their schools. Books made by hand were embellished with beautiful designs. Scholars came from the Continent to England, while Alcuin of York went to the court of Charlemagne (Charles the Great) in France to teach the people there. In Glastonbury, also, there lived at a later time the great Abbot Dunstan, who was not merely a Churchman, but a state administrator of the first rank, and was in this respect very like Cardinal Wolsey, who lived

in the reign of Henry the Eighth. Indeed from Dunstan to Wolsey the history of England shows a long succession of great churchmen who were also great administrators.



GROUND PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL MONASTERY (FOUNTAINS ABBEY, YORKSHIRE)

This Monastery was founded early in the twelfth century but records of seventh century buildings show that arrangements were similar to abbeys of the twelfth century.

- | | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Church. | 5. Refectory | 7. Gate House. |
| 2. Tower | 6. Store Houses (Bar-towers above). | 8. Kitchen |
| 3. Cloister House (Dormitories above). | Infirmary | 9. Abbot's House |
| 4. Cloisters. | 8. Guest-Houses. | 10. Priory |

Early Literature

Since the monasteries were the homes of learning most of our early literature originated there. Caedmon, a monk at Whitby, and said to have been at one time a herdsman, was our first native singer. A man to whom the gift of song was apparently lacking, he suddenly became inspired, and among other works he translated parts of the Old and New Testaments into verse. The first writer of prose in our language was the Venerable Bede, who lived in the monastery at Jarrow on Tyne. He, also, wrote on religious subjects but with the exception of the Gospel of St. John, all his writings were in

44 The Religion and Literature of the People

Latin. Perhaps the greatest of all early English poets and one of whom we know the least was Cynewulf. He lived in the eighth century, but it was not until 1810 that his name became known. His greatest poem, *The Christ*, gives us an idea of the spirit of early Christianity.

From the point of view of the historian, probably the most important work in English prose is the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. In early times the minstrel was the historian of his tribe, but he was not always truthful. Sometimes he attributed to his chief deeds of valour or generosity which had never been performed. If we go back to the heroic poem of *Beowulf* we find that the story of the devastation done by Grendel reached Beowulf through a minstrel travelling (as was his wont) from tribe to tribe. About the end of the ninth century, however, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* was begun, and from that time until the twelfth century the chief events from year to year were narrated. The book was written by many hands, and as one monk died another carried on the work. King Alfred himself is said to have written a part of the book.

Of the other poetry of the time, the *Song of Brunanburh*, celebrating the victory of the English king Athelstan (grandson of Alfred) over the Danes in 937, and the *Song of the Fight at Maldon*, in 991, are the most noteworthy. They are included in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. But most of the stories and songs were handed down from generation to generation by word of mouth, and when these came to be written fiction was largely blended with fact.

6—THE STORY OF CAEDMON

(From Bede's *History of the English People*)

How the gift of singing was miraculously given to a certain brother in the monastery of Hild's Abbey of St. Aethelred at Whitby

As long as Caedmon was a secular man which was till he was well stricken in age he never had learned any such matter of singing. In so much that sometimes at the table when the company was set to be merry and agreed for the nonce that each man should sing in order at his course he when he saw the harp come near him rose up at midst of supper and gat him out of doors home to his own house. And as he so did on a certain time getting him out of the place where they were dining and making merry together to the stable among the beasts which he had appointed him to keep and look to that night and when the hour of sleep came was gone his way quietly to bed. As he lay he dreamed that a certain man stood by him and bade him Godspeed and calling him by his name said to him. Caedmon I pray thee sing me a song.

Whereunto he made answer and said. I cannot sing. For that is the matter why I came out from the table to this place here because I could not sing.

But yet quoth he again that spake with him thou hast somewhat to sing to me.

What shall I sing? quoth he.

Sing quoth the other the beginning of all creatures.

At which answer he began by and by to sing in the laud and praise of God the Creator verses which he had never heard before.

Now when he awoke and rose up he remembered still by heart all the things that he had sung in his sleep and did straightway join thereto more words in the same manner and form of metre and made up a song

fit to be sung and applied to God. And on the morrow he came to the farmer or haillie under whom he was, and told him of the gift that he had received: and being brought to the Abbess he was commanded in the presence of many learned men to tell his dream, and rehearse the song, that it might by the judgment of them all be examined and tried what or whence the thing was which he reported. And it seemed to them all that some heavenly graco and gift was granted him of our Lord. Wheroupon the Abhess, acknowledging and embracing this grace and gift of God in the man, instructed and exhorted him to forsake the world and the life thereof, and to take the monastical life and profession upon him. Which he did, and was thereupon by the commandment of the Abhess placed in the company of the brethren; and by her appointment taught and instructed in the course of Holy Scripture.

His songs were of the creation of the world, and beginning of mankind, and all the story of Genosis, of the going of Israel out of Egypt, and their entering into the land of promise, and of many other histories of the Holy Scriptures. Of the incarnation of our Lord, of His passions, resurrection, and ascension into heaven; of the coming of the Holy Ghost; of the preaching and teaching of the Apostles. And he ended his life with a good end.

For when the hour of his departing was at hand, he was taken before and diseased fourteen days with bodily sickness; and yet so temperately, that he might all that time both speak and walk. There was thereby a little house into which they that were sick were wont to be brought, and such as were likely shortly to die. This man desired him that served him, the same evening before the night that he should depart out of the world,

to go and provide him a place to rest and he in that house. The other marvelled why he desired the same for he was nothing likely to die so soon. But yet he did as he was bid. When they were there placed he asked and inquired of them all whether they had the Sacrament there within.

"What need," quoth they, "is there of the Sacrament for your time is not come to die yet, that are so merrily talking with us as a man in good health?"

"But yet," quoth he again, "do you bring me hither the Sacrament." Which when he had taken in his hand he asked them whether they were all of a quiet mind and perfect charity toward him.

They answered all, that they were of very good mind and will toward him, and far from all wrath and displeasure. and they asked him again whether he bare goodwill and affection toward them.

He answered by and by. "I do bear, my dear children a quiet and good mind to all God's servants. Then he asked how nigh the hour was that the brethren should rise to say their night luds and service to our Lord.

"It is not far off," quoth they.

"Well then," quoth he, "let us abide and tarry for that hour." And blessing himself with the sign of the Holy Cross, he laid down his head on the bolster, and so falling a little in a slumber, ended his life in quiet and silence.

Further Reading and Reference.

Weland's Sword in *Puck of Pook's Hill* is an excellent story of Weland the Smith. Beautifully told stories from Bede are to be found in *The Candle of the North* by G. M. Duncan Jones. Padriac Colum's *The Children of Odin* is a book of Norse Mythology.

Time-Chart (55 B.C.—A.D. 1000).

(For Revision and Reference.)

DATE	BRITISH—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL	FOREIGN
B.C.	Julius Cæsar invades Britain, 55 B.C. and 54 B.C.	
A.D.		Birth of Christ.
		The Crucifixion, A.D. 33.
	Romans invade Britain—defeat of Caratacus, A.D. 43.	
50	Agricola, Governor of Britain, A.D. 78–85.	
100		
200		
300		
400	Romans leave Britain, about end of fourth century. Early raids of the English, about 450.	Rome destroyed by Goths, 410.
500		
	The Saxon System of Tillage	
	St. Columba at Iona, 563.	
	St. Augustine lands in Kent, 597.	
600	Elwin, King of North- umbria, 617–33.	Pope Gregory the Great, 590–604.
700	Synod of Whitby, 664.	Mohammed died, 632.
800		
	Danish Invasion about 800–1014.	
	Kenneth Macalpin, King of Scots, 844.	Charlemagne, Emperor, 768– 814.
	Alfred, King of Wessex, 871–900. (His work for law, learning, and the navy.)	
900		
1000	Ethelred the Redeless, 978–1013.	Rolf the Ganger settles in Normandy, 912.

PART II.—THE GROWTH OF THE CONSTITUTION.

7.—ENGLAND UNDER NORMAN RULE. (1066-1154)

The Norman Conquest.

As the grey dawn was breaking on an October morning of the year 1066 William, Duke of Normandy, drew up an army facing Senlac Hill near Hastings, and prepared to lead it against the forces of the English King Harold. That day is memorable in the annals of our history, for it saw the defeat of the English king and the setting up of a Norman dynasty in our land. The battle which took place lasted the whole day, and when the sun went down the king of England with the flower of his army lay dead upon the field.

Why should William seek to conquer our land? What was the connection between our country and Normandy? Let us consider the second question first.

We must remember that the Normans were of the same stock as the Danes or Northmen. The Northmen did not merely harry the shores of our islands. They landed on the coast of France, while they sailed the Mediterranean Sea as far as Asia Minor. Everywhere they went they wrought desolation and misery, and many weak princes were glad to make payments to them in order to escape their ravages.

One of their leaders was named Rolf the Ganger or Walker, for he was so tall and heavy that no horse suitable for him could be found, and he was forced to walk when other leaders rode. Rolf sailed up the river

Seine and laid siege to Paris. In order to avoid further ravages the king of the Franks, Charles the Simple, granted him the territory now known as Normandy. Thereafter Normandy formed a convenient base from which the Danes or Northmen could attack Britain.

Again, if we go back a little in history we find that Ethelred the Redeless married Emma, a daughter of the



HAROLD SWEARS TO RECOGNISE WILLIAM'S CLAIM TO THE THRONE OF ENGLAND.

(From the Bayeux Tapestry)

duke of Normandy. Their second son, Edward (The Confessor), spent most of his early life in the homeland of his mother, and when he became king of England he brought over many Norman favourites, especially Churchmen. The English and Anglo-Danish nobles were jealous of these Normans, and the country became divided into two parties, the king's friends or Norman party, and the "patriots" or Saxon party. The leader of the latter was Earl Godwin.

Now Edward had no direct heir, and during a visit

to crush each local rebellion in turn, and everywhere, and more particularly in the north, he harried the country. From the Humber to the Tees lands were laid waste, buildings destroyed, and men, women and children were slain or left to die of starvation. Many fled over the Scottish border. The rising of Hereward the Wake—"the last of the English"—was difficult to quell, for Hereward held out long in the Isle of Ely amid the eastern fens. The story of this hero's exploits—many of them legendary—may be found in the novel by Charles Kingsley which bears his name.

The thoroughness with which William punished the rebels may be gauged from information in the book which he compiled almost twenty years after—the *Domesday Book*. This contained a survey of the whole country, and in reading it we find that particularly in the north one estate after another is described as "waste."

Each rebellion was followed by the confiscation of land, and this was of advantage to William, for he rewarded his followers by granting them the land seized. In cases where an Englishman who had not fought against William remained on his estate he was required like other landholders to acknowledge that the land he held belonged to the king, and that he was his tenant and vassal. This system of landholding is known as the feudal system, and we shall speak more fully of it in the next chapter.

While William thus effectively controlled both Englishman and Norman he also asserted his authority in Church affairs. He refused to do homage to the Pope, but he permitted the Church to hold its own courts at which ecclesiastical offenders could be tried.

Yet the question of authority over the Church in our country was to be a very vexed one and led to many disputes between king and Pope during the reigns of William's successors



WILLIAM I GIVING A CHARTER TO THE CITIZENS OF LONDON
(From the painting by Scynovr Lucas, *Ante the Royal Exchange*)

William the Conqueror—A Contemporary Summary

(Extract from the *Anglo Saxon Chronicle*)

The king William about whom we speak was a very wise man and very powerful more dignified and strong than any of his predecessors were. He was mild to the good man who loved God and over all measure severe to the men who gainsayed his will. On that same stead on

which God granted him that he might subdue England, he reared a noble monastery, and there placed monks, and well endowed it. In his days was the noble monastery at Canterbury built, and also very many others over all England. This land was also plentifully supplied with monks, and they lived their lives after the rule of Saint Benedict. . . . Among other things is not to be forgotten the good peace that he made in this land, so that a man who had any confidence in himself might go over his realm, with his bosom full of gold, unhurt. Nor durst any man slay another man, had he done over so great evil to the other. . . . He reigned over England, and by his sagacity so thoroughly surveyed it that there was not a hide of land within England that he knew not who had it or what it was worth, and afterwards set it in his writ. Wales was in his power, and he therein built castles, and completely ruled over that race of men. In like manner he also subjected Scotland to him by his great strength. The land of Normandy was naturally his, and over the county which is called Maine he reigned, and if he might yet have lived two years he would, by his valour, have won Ireland, and without any weapons. Certainly in his time men had great hardship and very many injuries. Castles he caused to be made, and poor men to be greatly oppressed. . . . He planted a great preserve for deer, and he laid down laws therewith that whosoever should slay hart or hind should be blinded. . . . As greatly did he love the tall deer as if he were their father. . . . His great men bewailed it, and the poor men murmured thereat, but he was so obdurate that he recked not of the hatred of them all; but they must wholly follow the King's will if they would live, or have land, or property, or even his peace."

8.—LATER NORMAN RULE.

William died at Rouen in 1087 and his second son, William Rufus, came to the throne. To his eldest son Robert he left Normandy, and in consequence of this division of territory a quarrel began between the two brothers. Robert being the elder no doubt expected to be king of England. As his younger brother was too like his tyrant father in strength of will, the barons naturally supported Robert, who was easy-going, for under him they felt they would have more power. But William Rufus enlisted the help of his "brave and honourable English subjects" as he called them, and with their support was able to retain the country for himself.

He drove back an invasion by the Welsh, and when the Scottish king, Malcolm III., also invaded England he surprised and slew him at Alnwick. Normandy itself came into his possession, for his brother Robert joined the Crusades against the Turks in Palestine and pledged his territory to William for money to fit out an army.

William was entirely unscrupulous and devoid of any virtue which may have characterised his father. Both as regards church and state his policy was to concentrate as much power as possible in his own hands. He was killed by accident or perhaps murdered while hunting in the New Forest, and Henry, the third son of the Conqueror, became king.

Henry proved a strong and capable ruler. He was careful to secure the support of his English subjects, and by marrying Matilda, the daughter of the Scottish king, Malcolm III. (Canmore), he united the Norman dynasty with the Saxon line, for Matilda's mother was a Saxon princess, the grand-niece of Edward the Confessor. He issued a Charter of Liberties in which he declared

that only such feudal dues as were legal would be exacted, and that the old laws of Edward the Confessor would be observed. This naturally pleased both his Norman and his English subjects.

Robert, the eldest brother, returning from Palestine, caused trouble. He arrived in England with an army, but Henry, who had restored Normandy, forced him to give up all claim to England. Unfortunately for Robert, he again provoked the hostility of Henry, who defeated and captured him at Tenchebrai in Normandy in 1106. Robert was taken to England and died a captive at Cardiff, and Normandy again passed into the hands of the English king.

Henry greatly increased the power of the crown over the barons. He began to concentrate justice in the royal courts, and in so doing considerably curtailed the power of the nobles who had held courts of their own. The place of the Witan had been taken in the Conqueror's time by the Great Council, which was composed of the great tenants in chief, that is, of men who held land directly from the king. The Great Council, however, proved too unwieldy a body to get work done quickly, and power passed into the hands of a smaller body called the "Curia Regis" or King's Court. The king himself presided over this "ordinary" Council, which was attended by officials, such as the Justiciar, who acted for the king during his absence, the Chancellor or King's Secretary, the Chamberlain, who looked after the household, and the Marshall and the Constable, who were in charge of the army. The Great Council was rarely summoned. For his able administration of the country and the sternness with which he meted out punishment to evildoers, Henry was called "The Lion of Justice."

In regard to Church affairs Henry refused to allow the bishops of England to be independent of him, as they would have liked. He claimed the right to "invest" or appoint bishops. This was disputed by Anselm, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and eventually it was agreed that bishops and abbots were to pay homage to the king for their worldly possessions, but were to receive the symbols of their spiritual power—the ring and the crozier—from the Pope.

The closing years of Henry's life were darkened by sorrow and anxiety. His son was drowned in the sinking of the "White Ship," and he wished the barons to elect his daughter, Matilda, as their queen on his death. The barons promised to do so, but in those days the idea of a woman as ruler was considered ridiculous, and on Henry's death in 1135 they elected Stephen, son of Adela, the daughter of William I, as king. Then began "nineteen long winters" of anarchy. Stephen was as weak as his predecessors had been strong, and the barons did as they pleased.

King David of Scotland took up the cause of Matilda, who was his niece, but he was defeated at the Battle of the Standard at Northallerton in 1138. After many years of conflict, during which the tide of victory flowed first on one side and then on the other, it was decided by the Treaty of Wallingford that Matilda's son, Henry, should reign on the death of Stephen.

In those days the king played an exceedingly important part in the government of the country. Whereas to-day we have *representative* government, or government by the representatives of the people, in the Middle Ages there was *personal* government by the kings. The strength or weakness of a king, therefore, was reflected in the

that only such feudal dues as were legal would be exacted, and that the old laws of Edward the Confessor would be observed. This naturally pleased both his Norman and his English subjects.

Robert, the eldest brother, returning from Palestine, caused trouble. He arrived in England with an army, but Henry, who had restored Normandy, forced him to give up all claim to England. Unfortunately for Robert, he again provoked the hostility of Henry, who defeated and captured him at Tenchebrai in Normandy in 1106. Robert was taken to England and died a captive at Cardiff, and Normandy again passed into the hands of the English king.

Henry greatly increased the power of the crown over the barons. He began to concentrate justice in the royal courts, and in so doing considerably curtailed the power of the nobles who had held courts of their own. The place of the Witan had been taken in the Conqueror's time by the Great Council, which was composed of the great tenants in chief, that is, of men who held land directly from the king. The Great Council, however, proved too unwieldy a body to get work done quickly, and power passed into the hands of a smaller body called the "Curia Regis" or King's Court. The king himself presided over this "ordinary" Council, which was attended by officials, such as the Justiciar, who acted for the king during his absence, the Chancellor or King's Secretary, the Chamberlain, who looked after the household, and the Marshal and the Constable, who were in charge of the army. The Great Council was rarely summoned. For his able administration of the country and the sternness with which he meted out punishment to evildoers, Henry was called "The Lion of Justice."

In regard to Church affairs Henry refused to allow the bishops of England to be independent of him as they would have liked. He claimed the right to invest or appoint bishops. This was disputed by Anselm the Archbishop of Canterbury, and eventually it was agreed that bishops and abbots were to pay homage to the king for their worldly possessions, but were to receive the symbols of their spiritual power—the ring and the crozier—from the Pope.

The closing years of Henry's life were darkened by sorrow and anxiety. His son was drowned in the sinking of the "White Ship," and he wished the barons to elect his daughter, Matilda, as their queen on his death. The barons promised to do so, but in those days the idea of a woman as ruler was considered ridiculous, and on Henry's death in 1135 they elected Stephen, son of Adela, the daughter of William I, as king. Then began "nineteen long winters" of anarchy. Stephen was as weak as his predecessors had been strong, and the barons did as they pleased.

King David of Scotland took up the cause of Matilda, who was his niece, but he was defeated at the Battle of the Standard at Northallerton in 1138. After many years of conflict, during which the tide of victory flowed first on one side and then on the other, it was decided by the Treaty of Wallingford that Matilda's son, Henry, should reign on the death of Stephen.

In those days the king played an exceedingly important part in the government of the country. Whereas to-day we have *representative* government, or government by the representatives of the people, in the Middle Ages there was *personal* government by the king. The strength or weakness of a king, therefore, was reflected in the

condition of the country. If William I. was a tyrant, and ruled the country sternly, he yet treated all with equal justice. His rule was preferable to the anarchy under Stephen. The barons did not want either Stephen or Matilda to be supreme—"they loved discord." Each baron became a petty tyrant king and practised the most terrible cruelties he could devise. The poor walked in misery and starvation. To judge of the change that had come upon the country we need only contrast two statements which appear in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. One of these we have already read in the extract on page 54. Of William it is said: "Among other things is not to be forgotten the good peace that he made in this land, so that a man who had any confidence in himself might go over his realm, with his bosom full of gold, unhurt." On the other hand, of the reign of Stephen the statement is full of meaning: "Men said that Christ and his saints slept."

9.—WHAT THE NORMANS DID.

Although before the Norman Conquest the English had already begun to develop institutions similar to those which flourished at a later date, the Conquest is a dividing line in social and industrial history.

The Feudal System.

William maintained his hold over the country he had conquered by the feudal system which he established in an altered form. The basis of this system was the granting of land by the king in return for military service. Feudalism prevailed on the Continent when William came over to our country, and there the lord gave land called a "feud" or a "fief" to a person on condition that

the latter became his vassal and followed him in battle. This system was not altogether new in England, for we have already seen that in Saxon times the king often granted land to his thegns on condition that they would serve him when required, while many freemen "commended" themselves to lords.

In accordance with this system William declared himself feudal lord of England. He confiscated the estates of those who fought against him and distributed them among his nobles. Those Saxon landowners who had not actively opposed him were forced to declare that their land belonged to the king and that they were his vassals. The land which remained was used by William to reward his followers.

Those Normans and Englishmen who received the land from the king were called "tenants-in-chief." Other freemen who in turn received land from a tenant-in-chief were called "under-tenants" or "sub tenants." Each tenant or sub tenant swore to serve his immediate superior.

The tenants-in-chief had two duties to perform. First of all they had to follow the king to war and bring with them the sub-tenants and all others who were bound to serve them. Secondly, they had to make money payments such as "reliefs" and "aids." "Reliefs" were paid to the feudal lord by the successor of a tenant when the tenant died. "Aids" were payments made to ransom the lord from captivity, to provide his eldest daughter with a dowry on her marriage, on the knighting of his eldest son, or on other special occasions.

The ceremony by which the tenant swore to serve the king was called doing homage. Kneeling before the king and placing his hands in his the tenant said, "I

become your man from this day forward, of life and limb, and of earthly worship; and I will be faithful and loyal to you through life and in death." Thereafter the king kissed the tenant on the cheek and the ceremony was ended.

William had observed that there was a weakness in the feudal system as it existed on the Continent. There it frequently happened that a noble became sufficiently powerful with land and followers to flout the authority of the king and rebel against him. To avert this William did three things. He distributed the lands to his barons in scattered estates. A baron would have one estate in one part of the country and another elsewhere. Should he oppose the king in any way it would be difficult if not impossible for him to unite his forces. Secondly, William assembled all the landowners—tenants and sub-tenants—at Salisbury in 1086. Here he made them swear that they "would be faithful to him against all other men." Every tenant therefore obeyed the king first and other superiors after. Thirdly, he maintained the old English militia or "fyrd" which was of great use in suppressing feudal revolts.

Domesday Book.

Moreover, in 1086 William caused a great survey of the country to be made. Commissioners accompanied by their clerks travelled through the country, visiting all towns and villages and demanding answers to the following questions:

"What is the name of the manor? Who held it in the time of King Edward? Who holds it now? How many acres are there? How many ploughs belong to the lord of the manor? How many belong to the

villeins, slaves, and freemen? How much woodland is there? How much meadow? How much pasture? How many mills and fisheries, and what are they worth? What is the value of the estate? Could it be made more valuable?"

The answers to these questions were forwarded to London and there compiled into a book called *Domesday Book*, which you may see to-day in the Record Office in London. In this way William could see exactly how much property each landowner had.

The majority of the Anglo-Saxon ceorls, who had formerly been freeholders, were now serfs or villeins and held their land from the Norman lords. In return they performed a certain amount of work for the lord, that is to say, they paid rent in the form of labour.

Many changes also were made in our language. To begin with the Normans did not understand the English tongue and were accustomed to despise the Saxons. They scorned the English language as the speech of a conquered people. At first, then, we have two languages, Norman-French and English, being used at the same time. After many years English became the standard tongue, but it was no longer the English of Edward the Confessor and Harold. Many Norman-French words had been introduced. Most of the new words had reference to Norman ways of living—to feudalism and war, such as *aid*, *banner*, *captain*; to law, such as *attorney*, *assize*, *person*; to hunting, such as *course*, *covert*, *falcon*, and to food, such as *beef*, *veal*, and *mutton*. The complicated grammar of early English also had been broken down and the language was now much simpler in form.

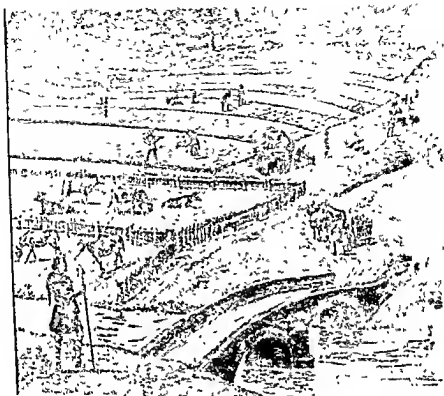
William the Conqueror and his successors retained

many of the Saxon ways of administering justice while introducing others. For example, the old system of trial by ordeal existed side by side with the newer method of trial by combat introduced by the Normans, when a man could clear his character if he fought and defeated his accuser. This, of course, was not always fair, for the accused man might be a better fighter than his opponent and yet be guilty of the offence charged against him. The Normans, however, loved fighting, and one of the most popular forms of sport which existed throughout the Middle Ages was the tournament—a meeting attended by all classes from king to serf—in which mail-clad knights rode against each other with sword and lance. Sir Walter Scott gives a picture of the sport in his novel *Ivanhoe* and also in *Tales of a Grandfather*.

The Normans and their Castles.

(From Freeman's *History of the Norman Conquest*.)

"The building of castles is something of which the English writers of this age frequently speak, and speak always with a special kind of horror. Both the name and the thing were new. To fortify a town, to build a citadel to protect a town, were processes with which England had long been familiar. To contribute to such necessary public works was one of the three immemorial obligations from which no Englishman could free himself. But for a private landowner to raise a private fortress to be the terror of his neighbours was something to which Englishmen had hitherto been unaccustomed, and for such a structure the English language had hitherto contained no name. But now the tall, square, massive



A VILLAGE PRIOR TO THE

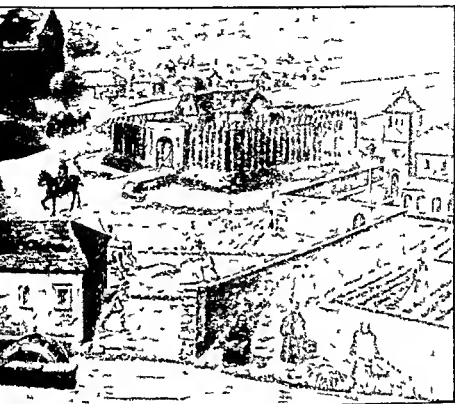
(Reconstruction)

The description in the text refers to the

10.—THE MANOR AND ITS SYSTEM.

In *Domesday Book* constant reference is made to the word "manor." We are not surprised at this, for if we refer to pages 60-1 we see that the main questions asked by the commissioners all concerned manors. What, then, is a manor?

Picture to yourself a village which seems to be cut off from the outside world, from which run no wide roads or railway tracks, but narrow lanes which appear

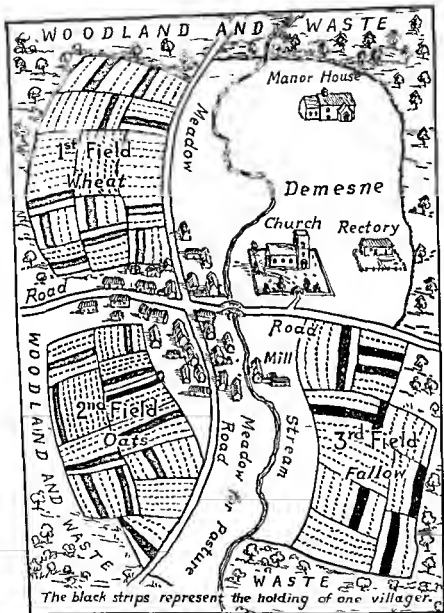


THE NORMAN CONQUEST

(Merry)

c. 60. The illustration shows a rather earlier period

to lose themselves in the moors beyond, where no hedges, dykes, fences, or enclosures of any kind catch the eye. Imagine a number of wooden houses clustering together, a little stone or wooden church built in Norman style of architecture—with thick walls, small windows, and a square tower—a rectory near by, and in the distance a large house. A stream flows past the village and on its banks sheep and cattle are grazing. A mill driven by water from the stream stands near



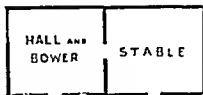
PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL VILLAGE, SHOWING CULTIVATION BY THE
THREE-FIELD SYSTEM.

The Manor House

The large house that we see (on the plan on page 66) is the manor house. It is the house in which the lord resides unless he happens to possess many manors in which case his bailiff may live in it and carry on the work on his behalf. The house is a low rambling building constructed sometimes of stone and timber but at this period more often solely of wood and it stands in the middle of a considerable area of land enclosed by a hedge. If we look into the interior of the house we see that the walls are whitewashed and hung with weapons and trophies of the chase. The floor is strewn with rushes. A long table consisting of a board set upon trestles runs down the middle of the hall. Here the lord and his family together with the servants sit down to meals the lord and his guests sitting at one end the servants at the other. Sometimes there is a raised platform. Overhead are sleeping rooms although at night the serving men stretch themselves out on the hall floor. Underneath is a great cellar.

The Village Houses

As we wander through the village we find that the houses are little wooden huts with roofs thatched with straw. They are not very inviting. Most of them consist of only one room and are not very clean for the floors are of clay and the fire burns in the centre. The smoke escapes now through a hole in the roof now through one in the wall which serves as a window now through the door. Chimneys in the walls are filled with mud to keep out the wind. Some houses are larger than others and are surrounded by several sheds for housing cattle and sheep and these belong to the



ELEVATION AND PLAN OF A THIRTEENTH CENTURY COTTAGE.

(Based on G. G. Coulton's *The Medieval Village*.)

Now if we were to look at the fields in the following year we might discover that the first field was fallow and the second growing wheat and the third oats. The third year we would see that the second was fallow, the third growing wheat and the first oats.

The reason is that our forefathers early discovered that the same crops grown on the same land every year became poorer and poorer as time went on. Hence it became necessary to give the soil a rest. The land was divided into two large fields. In each year, in turn, one field grew crops and the other lay fallow. This was called the "two field system." Later it was discovered that if different crops were grown on the same piece of land it did not become exhausted so quickly. This led to the "three field system," which is illustrated in the following table.

YEAR	FIELDS		
	A	B	C
1st Year	Wheat	Oats or Barley	Fallow
2nd Year	Oats or Barley	Fallow	Wheat
3rd Year	Fallow	Wheat	Oats or Barley

as we saw existed in early Saxon times. Each strip is about a chain (from two to four "rods") in width and a furlong in length. (The "rod" is said to be the length of the pole or rod used by the ploughman to urge on his ox-team. Hence we get "pole" and "rod" as units



PLOUGHING WITH OXEN IN THE ELEVENTH CENTURY.

(Cotton MS.)

of measurement. Probably the word furlong is derived from "furrow-long," the usual distance a team could draw the plough without resting.) Separating the strip from its neighbours is a thin unploughed border of about a foot in width on which are growing grass and weeds. This is known as a "balk."

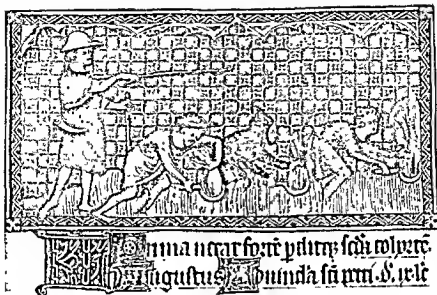
The strips are cultivated by the villagers. Some of these are freemen, but most of them are not. Each has strips in different parts of the three fields. The reason for this is that some parts of a field might be more fertile than others. The soil in some places might be rich, in others stony or marshy. In the distribution of strips, therefore, all the villagers receive a share of good and bad.

The lord's share of the land amounted to a third or a half of the whole. It is called his demesne or domain, and consists partly of scattered strips just like the villagers' holdings.

Around the fields and enclosing the whole manor is the waste land. Here cattle, sheep and swine are grazing and are attended by a herd who receives a certain amount of corn and other produce from each of the villagers. Here also are obtained logs for building the houses and brushwood and turfs for the fire. The turfs are dried and used just as peats are in the north of Scotland and in the west of Ireland to-day.

Each manor is practically self-supporting. Food and fuel are provided from the fields, wool is obtained from the sheep and leather from the hides of the cattle. Every housewife bakes her own bread and makes the clothing for herself and the family. The animals live on what they can pick up from the waste land and the meadow, but there is little for them to eat in the winter and as a rule they are small and stunted in growth. Indeed, because of the scarcity of food many of the oxen are killed at the beginning of winter, their flesh being salted and kept for use by the people of the village.

To-day in many parts of England relics of the old manorial system may still be observed. Some people regret the change that has come upon the land and long for a return to old times, yet the system had many defects. Improvements were almost impossible. No man could make changes without the consent of his fellows; the numerous bulls were wasteful while they prevented cross ploughing, and the farmer lost much time in going from strip to strip, perhaps a mile or more apart. There was not enough food for the live stock in the winter, and the herding together of sheep and cattle made it difficult to prevent the spread of disease.



REAPERS AND OVERTSEER.

(From an early Fourteenth Century MS, now known as Queen Mary's Psalter.)

11.—LIFE ON THE MANOR.

The People.

The people who lived in the village we have just been picturing were divided into four classes—slaves, cottars, villeins, and freemen.

The villeins, who were the largest class on the medieval manor, held usually a "virgate" of land (about 30 acres), and grazed their cattle and sheep on the meadow and on the waste land. For this each man paid the lord a rent in labour. He had to work three or four days a week on the demesne and also do extra work without reward on "boon" days, which came at busy seasons, such as harvest time and at the spring and autumn ploughing. Payments were also made in fowl, fish, eggs and swine. The cottars were legally of

the same social order as the villeins, but had smaller holdings of only a few acres. The freemen were few in number. Unlike the villeins and cottars, they could not be legally deprived of their holdings by the lord, and they did only boon work for him. The slave held no land and was possessed entirely by the lord. But slavery died out very rapidly in England after the Norman Conquest.

In addition to payments to the lord, dues were also given to the rector by the people according to their social order and means. These dues consisted of produce of all kinds, such as every tenth sheaf or tenth lamb, and were known as tithes. (In Scotland they were called tenns.) The priest made charges for marrying people and for burying the dead. He had a considerable extent of ground called the glebe.

The Manorial Courts

Legally the lord could not do physical injury to the villen, but otherwise, he had him completely in his power. There were many things which the villen was not allowed to do without permission. He could not leave the manor unless he obtained the consent of the lord, nor could his daughter marry, or his son go to school, without the lord's permission. Applications such as these were heard at the manorial courts in which the lord was all powerful, although the power of the lord was considerably curtailed by the Norman kings who wished to have for themselves more authority over their vassals than continental kings possessed.

Very often the courts and other meetings of the villagers were held in the nave of the village church which was perhaps the most substantial building in the manor. Many records exist of the cases brought to

these courts. We read of men being fined for allowing cattle to trespass, for brewing ale below the standard, for cutting down an elm without licence, and so on. Other business of a local nature, such as the transference of strips, took place there. For this and similar transactions fees were paid, all of which, together with the fines inflicted on offenders, went into the pocket of the lord.

Here are some items taken from the Manor Court Rolls of Great Cressingham, Norfolk, in the early fourteenth century.¹

"AMERCIAMENT,² 12d. From William Hubbard for damage in the lord's meadows.

AMERCIAMENT, 6d. From John Aylemer for damage in the fields in autumn.

AMERCIAMENT, 2d. From Hugh Holer because he did not do his boon-work in autumn as he was summoned to do.

12d. From Isabel Syapping for licence to have a fold of her own sheep.

A. 6d. From Hugh Rolf and Hugh Holer for licence to resign the office of ale-taster.

ELECTION. Alan le Cok and Alan le Spicer were elected to the office of ale-taster, and sworn.

A. 2d. From Christiana Punte because she has sold ale and bread contrary to the assize."

The following are from a slightly earlier period³:

"William Jordan in mercy for⁴ bad ploughing on the lord's land. Fine, 6d.

¹ Quoted in *Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History* (University of Pennsylvania).

² Amerciament—the infliction of a penalty left to the mercy of the inflicter. A fine.

³ Nutland's *Select Pleas in Manorial Courts*.

⁴ In mercy for = convicted of.

From Martin Shepherd, 6d. for the wound he gave Pekin.

Ragenhilda of Bee gives 2s. for having married without licence.

The Court presents that William Noak's son is the born bondman of the lord and a fugitive. Therefore he must be sought."



CUTTING AND CARTING TIMBER.
(Cotton MS.)

Daily Life.

Since each manor was practically self-supporting there was scanty intercourse with other manors or townships. Most men travelled little in those days, and news came from the outside world only by means of some wandering chapman or pedlar or perhaps by a "pardoner" who sold sacred relics after the fashion described at a later date by Chaucer.

Life on the manor consisted mostly of work. All rose at sunrise and went to bed as the sun went down. What with ploughing the land, sowing the seed, caring for the sheep and cattle and bringing in the logs from the wood, threshing, hoeing, sheep-washing, shearing and hay-making, the menfolk had little leisure. The womenfolk were never idle. In addition to domestic duties

Trial by Jury.

Henry further reduced the power of the nobles by depriving the baronial courts of much of their importance. As his grandfather had done before him, he sent judges "on circuit," that is, they went from place to place at certain times to try cases brought before them. These judges were known as itinerant justices or Justices in Eyre. To assist in the work, twelve men from the hundred and four from the township were to form a jury to consider the charges brought against alleged evildoers. Contrary to our practice to-day, the jurymen were supposed to know the details of the cases before they met to discuss them. They decided from their personal knowledge whether a person was guilty.¹ This was the beginning of the modern jury system. Later, those who had personal knowledge of the matter in dispute became witnesses, and the jurymen gave their verdict on the statements put before them. The latter system is the fairer, but even in its earlier form trial by jury was superior to trial by battle or by ordeal or by compurgation (the method by which an accused person brought a number of his friends to swear to his innocence, see page 35). It was only in the royal courts that trial by jury could be obtained, and this was why the king

The Church

Like his predecessors Henry found himself in opposition to the Church. He had appointed his court favourite and chancellor, Thomas Becket Archbishop of Canterbury expecting that he would continue to be his right hand man. But as soon as Becket became archbishop he regarded himself as an ecclesiastic first and the king's friend afterwards. He denied that the king had any right to interfere with the judgments given in the Church courts though in most cases the punishment given by these courts did not fit the crime, as the severest penalty they could inflict was imprisonment. A priest guilty of murder escaped the death penalty. In 1164 the

Constitutions of Clarendon were prepared by Henry and submitted to the Church for approval. They contained clauses which had already been agreed upon that there could be no appeals to Rome, that no churchman could leave the country without the consent of the king that no villen could enter the service of the Church without permission of the lord of the manor, and several others.

But the most troublesome, and the most important clause was one which stated that any churchman convicted of crime in a Church court must be sentenced by the king's court. To this Becket refused to agree, and the dispute became so serious that he had to flee from the country. A reconciliation afterwards took place. Becket returned but immediately excommunicated those bishops who at Henry's request, had crowned his son as his successor, in violation. Becket maintained, of the rights of the Archbishopric of Canterbury. Henry was in his French domains and when he heard the news his wrath knew no bounds. Acting on the king's angry

words, four of his courtiers crossed the Channel in hot haste and fiercely challenged Becket for his action. Becket as fiercely replied, and the infuriated knights slew him in the cathedral at Canterbury.

Henry's "turbulent priest" was dead, but his death was the greatest calamity that could have befallen the king. He was forced to do penance for the deed, to surrender his claims, and to make his peace with the Church. The Church courts retained their privileges unimpaired for another three hundred years.

Ireland, Scotland, and the Continent.

It was in Henry's reign that the English conquest of Ireland was begun. The country was divided into many petty kingdoms, and Dermot M'Murrough, King of Leinster, whom his fellow-rulers had dethroned for very good reasons, appealed to the English king for assistance. Henry allowed Richard de Clare Earl of Pembroke (called Strongbow), the Fitzgeralds and others to support Dermot, who was now able to defeat his enemies. Strongbow succeeded Dermot as King of Leinster. Henry afterwards crossed to Ireland and received homage as "Lord of Ireland," the feudal system of land tenure being nominally introduced. But the hold of the English king over the country was slight and it soon relapsed into anarchy.

Fortune favoured Henry in his relations with Scotland. The Scottish king, William the Lion, in an effort to regain the northern counties which his brother Malcolm had lost, was surprised and captured at Alnwick. Henry took him to Normandy, and released him only when he had acknowledged Henry as overlord of Scotland. This acknowledgment was made at Falaise in 1174.

On the Continent Henry was a dominating force. Probably he spent more time there than he did in England. His dominions across the Channel included Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, Gascony, and Marche, and his power extended from the Somme to the Pyrenees. These vast territories made him one of the most powerful kings of his time.



CRUSADERS ATTACKING A WALLED TOWN

(From a tapestry by G. Verlat)

A Crusading King

Henry died in 1189—his last years being clouded by rebellions of his sons. He was succeeded by his son Richard I, Count de Lion, who is remembered more for the part he played in the Crusades than for his work in the government of his kingdom. Out of his reign of ten years Richard spent only ten months in England.

His most memorable exploits took place during the Third Crusade, when he found himself opposed to the Turkish leader, Saladin, a chivalrous soldier like himself.

Aided by Philip of France, he captured Acre in Syria, and himself defeated Saladin at Arsouf. But in the end the crusade failed, and on his way home to England Richard was taken prisoner by Leopold of Austria, with whom he had quarrelled in Palestine. By Leopold he was sold to the Emperor Henry VI. of Germany, and ransomed from the latter at the expense of the English people. Richard met his death in an attack upon the castle of Chaluz in southern France in an effort to wrest from one of his vassals treasure which he was said to have found and which he refused to surrender.



A KNIGHT TEMPLAR,
TWELFTH CENTURY
(From the effigy of
the Earl of Pembroke,
Temple Church,
London)

Further Reading and Reference.

The Namesake of the King, by A. M. Barham, is a story of the time of Richard I. See also *Ivanhoe* and *The Talisman*, by Sir Walter Scott. *The Wars of the Cross*, M'Dougall's Educational Co., Ltd., contains stories founded on the Chronicles.

13—THE GREAT CHARTER AND THE BEGINNING OF OUR PARLIAMENTARY SYSTEM (1199 1399)

It concerns the community to see what sort of man ought justly to be chosen for the weal of the realm

King John

On the death of Richard his brother John who had intrigued and rebelled against him during his absence from the country succeeded to the crown. John is commonly regarded as the worst king who ever sat upon the English throne and he certainly gave cause for this judgment. Within six years after his accession the English possessions in France had been lost except Poitou, Guienne and the Channel Islands and he had succeeded in alienating to a large extent the affections of his English subjects.

In Church affairs he defied the Pope who against the king's wishes had made Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope replied by placing England under an Interdict. All the churches were closed, only as a favour could infants be baptised or the dying receive the last sacrament, the dead were buried in unconsecrated ground with no religious ceremony. John retorted by seizing the estates of the churchmen and using their revenues for his own purposes. The Pope then excommunicated him and later declared that he had forfeited his throne.

Magna Carta.

John's conduct both as a king and as an individual made him hated everywhere and soon Baronage, Church and People united in a common movement against him.

Already he had had to yield to the Pope (Innocent III.), and recognise him as his overlord. Now at Runnymede, the low-lying marshy land on the right bank of the Thames between Staines and Windsor, he was forced to yield to his subjects and proclaim the *Magna Carta* or *Great Charter*, the first great landmark in the struggle by the people of England for constitutional freedom. Here on the 15th June, 1215, those rights which the leaders of the people regarded as theirs by custom were written down and declared law. The Church was given freedom to elect its officials as it pleased. The consent of the Great Council was made necessary for all feudal aids except the acknowledged three—for the ransom of the king's person, on the knighthood of his eldest son, and on the marriage of his eldest daughter. No freeman was to be imprisoned or otherwise punished without first having a fair trial by his peers. There was little new in the Charter, but it emphasised in no uncertain way that an English king could not rule despotically, that the subject had certain rights and privileges which not even the king could disregard.

Twenty-five barons were selected to see that the king adhered to the Charter—"twenty-five over-kings" John called them. But John had little intention of keeping his word. He soon collected an army of paid soldiers from overseas and took the field against the barons. But suddenly he was taken ill—following, it is said, a too hearty meal—and he died at Newark in 1216.

John's reign had one very important consequence. The loss of territory in France led men to look upon England as a self-contained nation. Hitherto many nobles had held lands both in France and England, and they tended to regard France as their homeland and England

86 Beginning of Our Parliamentary System

as a conquered country. But in John's reign this was finally reversed. French territories were now looked upon as English conquests, the distinction between Anglo-Norman and English disappeared, and the growth of the English nation made rapid progress.

The Beginnings of Parliament

King John was succeeded by his son, Henry III. The new king, who was but a boy, accepted the principles laid down in *Magna Carta*, although as events proved he did not always keep his promises. Artistic and musical, he was incapable as a king, being an incompetent soldier and a foolish statesman. The English king's possessions in France were further diminished by the loss of Poitou. This added to the discontent already prevailing, for the barons were disgusted by the king's excessive taxation and by the foreign favourites with whom he surrounded himself. Soon the nobles rose against him, under the leadership of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester and brother-in-law of the king. Although himself a foreigner (at one time he was offered the regency of France during the French king's absence), Earl Simon proved himself a worthy champion of English liberty. He forced the king to agree to the appointment of a committee to reform the state. The committee met at Oxford in 1258, and by the 'Provisions of Oxford' it was arranged that a council of fifteen barons should be set up through which the king would rule the country, and that there would be another body of twelve representative barons to be summoned at least three times a year. In 1264, following an earlier precedent, Simon summoned four knights from each shire to attend his first parliament. This confirmed the

new custom of having county or shire representatives in Parliament. The barons, however, considered mainly their own selfish interests. They became oligarchical, that is, they ruled in the interest of a few and not of the community as a whole.

Henry was not inclined to submit tamely to the dictation of the barons and, released from his oath by the Pope, he took up arms. But he was defeated and captured by Earl Simon at Lewes in 1264, and England "breathed again in the hope of liberty." By the "Miso of Lewes" Prince Edward and his cousin Henry were retained as hostages to ensure the king's obedience to what was now regarded as the constitution of the country.

In 1265 Earl Simon called a new parliament, and to this assembly two representatives from twenty-one boroughs were summoned. *This was the first occasion on which county and town representatives sat together in Parliament.* The growing importance of the towns was largely responsible for this development. Commerce was increasing, and in particular the wool industry was thriving. A class of merchants and traders had come into existence, not so powerful as the nobles, but of more importance than the rural freemen. Earl Simon was quick to appreciate the influence of this new class, and to recognise their claim to a share in the government. In the same year, however, the earl's career was cut short. He was defeated and slain by Prince Edward at the battle of Evesham.

Strengthening the Nation.

In 1272 Henry's son Edward I. succeeded to the throne. The new king realised that it was now impossible to govern the country by autocratic methods as the earl

this day all who receive such summons sit in Parliament as members of the House of Lords.)

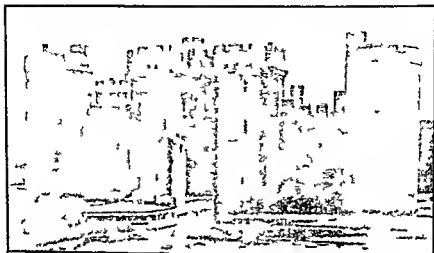
- (2) Representatives from 37 shires and 166 boroughs. (Each shire representative was chosen by the freeholders or landowners. As a rule, only a few in the borough were entitled to vote.)
- (3) Representatives of the lower clergy.

At first Parliament assembled in any convenient way, but before long two Houses were formed. The barons and higher clergy constituted the House of Lords, the shire and borough representatives the House of Commons. The lower clergy ceased to attend. Parliament soon acquired control over taxation, and could refuse to grant the king money beyond his feudal dues if they chose. The power which Parliament to-day has over the purse may be said to have begun in the reign of Edward I.

The Continent, Wales, and Scotland.

On the Continent Edward, after a struggle, expelled the king of France from Guienne, of which the latter had obtained possession by a trick. At the same time he encouraged friendly relations between England and Flanders, and the woollen industry developed accordingly.

While the barons were at war with King Henry III., the Welsh had been quick to profit by the turmoil. They strengthened their hold on the border territory, and their prince, Llewelyn, believing himself sufficiently strong, refused to do homage to Edward and rose in arms against him. By the Treaty of Aberconway, however, peace was restored. But in 1282 a further rebellion



BODIAM CASTLE SUSSEX

A typical example of the many castles built in the fourteenth century

resulted in the death of Llewelyn, and the complete subjugation of Wales by the Treaty of Rhuddlan (1283). Edward proclaimed his infant son Prince of Wales, a title which is still given to the king's eldest son.

In regard to Scotland Edward's aim of an united kingdom was more difficult to achieve. The King of Norway (the heiress to the Scottish throne after Alexander III) had died and Edward was asked to give judgment on the claims of thirteen nobles to the throne. Before giving his decision he let it be known that whosoever was chosen must be his vassal. This condition was accepted by the nobles but not by the nation. The claimants, it should be noted, were not entirely Scottish but of Anglo-Norman descent, and held lands both in Scotland and in England. At Norham, Edward quite justly declared John Balliol to have the best claim. Balliol, however, after doing homage to Edward, was

provoked by Edward's irritating policy into throwing off his allegiance. In 1295 he formed an alliance with France which lasted for almost three hundred years, and which was often spoken of as the "Auld Alliance." Balliol proved a weak king, and was easily defeated and deposed by Edward. But the cause of Scottish independence was taken up by William Wallace, a country gentleman of Renfrewshire. Wallace was victorious at the battle of Stirling Bridge, but was later defeated at Falkirk. After his capture and death, Robert Bruce, the grandson of one of the claimants to the throne, became the leader of the Scots, and in 1314, when Edward II. was king of England, he gained a memorable victory at Bannockburn. Fourteen years later, in 1328, Scottish independence was acknowledged by the Treaty of Northampton.

The Successors of Edward I.—Weakness and Overthrow.

The reign of Edward II., which lasted to 1327, was a period of misrule. His son, Edward III., however, proved that he had many of the soldierly characteristics of his grandfather. He marched into Scotland, in 1333, defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill, but was unable to follow up his victory because of attacks made by Scotland's ally, France. Edward then turned his attention to the latter country, and began the great war which lasted, with frequent intervals, for a hundred years, and is known as the Hundred Years' War. In Edward's reign the English won the battle of Slays at sea, and Crécy and Poitiers on French soil. King David II., son of Robert Bruce, attacked England to help his French ally, but was defeated and captured at Nevillo's Cross in 1346.

14—SCOTLAND BEFORE THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

An English visitor to Lowland Scotland or a Scottish Lowlander visiting England during the years from the coming of William of Normandy to the struggles of Wallace and Bruce, would doubtless have been struck by the remarkable similarity between the methods of government of the two countries. Malcolm Canmore, who was king of Scotland at the time of the Conquest, married a Saxon princess, Margaret, who had fled across the border from the Normans (Malcolm himself in early life had to seek refuge at the English court when his father was slain by Macbeth). Soon, largely through Margaret's influence, the king's court was transformed from roughness to grandeur, and the Church was induced to adopt English ways and to look to Rome as the headquarters of the Christian faith. Also to some extent through Margaret, the influence of the country south of the Forth (Lothian, as it was called), which had been connected with northern Scotland since the battle of Carham in 1018, was greatly increased. Many Englishmen who fled from the Conqueror found refuge in Scotland, and they played their part in making the Lowlands, where English speech and English ideas held sway, the most important part of Scotland. Naturally many of Malcolm's Celtic subjects were displeased, and there was a reaction against the new methods. But, in spite of this opposition, David I in the twelfth century married an English lady, while his sister Edith married Henry I. Gradually English ways

spread beyond the Southern Lowlands and became more and more part and parcel of the everyday life of the people even in many Celtic districts.

Thus although Scotland was never conquered by the Normans, many Normans and many Norman customs found their way into that country.

96 Scotland before the War of Independence

Scotland herself was always a contented and united country. There were frequent rebellions but the people would as a rule unite to ward off foreign attacks such as those of the Norsemen. The bitterness prevailing in the country after William the Lion was made to swear allegiance to the king of England and the subsequent payment of a large sum to enable Scotland to buy back her independence from Richard I, prove that there was a strong national spirit. And this national spirit found abundant outlet during the War of Scottish Independence in the reigns of Edward I and Edward II of England.

Daily Life in Scotland

What do we know of the ordinary life of the people in Scotland at this time? In Scotland, as in England the villages were largely self supporting, agriculture being the chief occupation. The majority of the people worked on the monastic domains or on the manors of lords. The abbays in particular, such as Kelso and Melrose formed the centres of all kinds of industry. Serfs and villeins cultivated oats and barley under the supervision of a lay brother attached to the abbey, who lived at a grange on the domain. Outside the domain were the free tenants, most of whom had received their lands from the abbey. As under the manorial system in England rent was paid in service—week work and boon work—or in kind. By the thirteenth century, however, money payments were common in the south.

The towns in Scotland were more often than not mere villages. As in England they were situated in the neighbourhood of a castle or monastery, or near the sea.

for trading purposes, or on the banks of a river for communication. The burial places of saints also formed centres of pilgrimage and therefore of trade. The city of Glasgow is said to trace its origin to the settlement of St. Mungo or St. Kentigern. Queensferry owes its



COUNTRY FOLK OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

(From an old print.)

origin to the ferry on the Forth, and named so from Queen Margaret, wife of Malcolm III.

In the main, the townspeople depended on agriculture for their livelihood, and there was no such distinction as exists to-day between country life and city life. Surrounding the town, but at a considerable distance away, was the pasture-land. Nearer were the ploughlands or fields. The town itself, like English towns, was for defensive purposes surrounded by a ditch or stockade: later by a dyke or wall. It was entered by gateways where keepers were stationed to question any

person coming or going. It usually consisted of one street from which in many narrow lanes. All the houses were made of wood and shops such as we have to day did not exist. The roadways were always filthy, for pigs and other domesticated animals moved about it will. Few troubled themselves about the repair and upkeep of these roadways. there was no lighting and it was dangerous to go abroad without a lantern after dark.

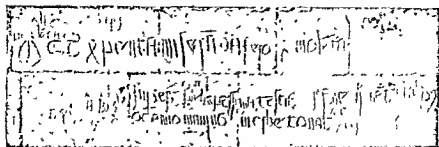
As in England there were in the Lowlands two classes of people—the free and the unfree. On market days when people came from outlying districts to sell their wares the unfree men had to stand on one side of the street and wait until the freemen had made their purchases before they could be served. Serfdom however died out earlier in Scotland than in England. The wants of the people were few and simple. Ale and oatmeal formed their staple diet but the rich sometimes enjoyed the luxuries of spices and wines brought from other lands.

Further Reading and Reference

See *Tales of a Grandfather* by Sir Walter Scott

15—THE BLACK DEATH AND AFTER

The fourteenth century witnessed many stirring events in the story of our country. It was the time when England gained the memorable victories of Crecy and Poitiers and the name of the Black Prince rang through out the land and when a little earlier at Bannockburn Robert Bruce struck the final blow for Scottish independence.



A CONTEMPORARY INSCRIPTION ON THE WALL OF ASHWELL CHURCH, HERTS

TRANSLATION —In 1350 the deplorable, fierce, raging pestilence departed the dregs of the people survive to tell the tale

At the end of the second visitation of the plague there was a mighty wind. Maurice thunders in the city (i.e. on St. Maurice's Day there was storm and tempest).

on the skin accompanied by swellings all over the body. The victim usually died, sometimes in a few hours—at the most after three or four days' illness. Few recovered from the dreaded disease.

The panic caused by the plague was indescribable. The roads, it is said, were thronged with men, women, and children, mostly of the well-to-do class, fleeing from the pestilence. The death-roll among the clergy was appalling, for the monks heroically strove to mitigate the sufferings of the stricken, and fell victims to their devotion. At Meaux, in Yorkshire, only ten monks survived out of fifty. At Hickley nine died out of ten. About two thirds of the clergy died at Norwich. Grave-diggers worked night and day and the dead were buried together in huge pits.

Every village was affected. Few cared about riches or anything else. Animals were left, in many cases, untended. Men were little concerned with these material things. They awaited with anxiety the death which they instinctively felt was near, and dreaded to look each other in the face lest they should see the signs which showed it had already arrived. Strangers coming to a village were viewed with suspicion and avoided. Monks and nuns striving to succour the dying were afraid to seek food or shelter lest they should be told that the Death was upon them. Men were stricken in the field, women in the house, children at play. That is why, to the people living in England then, the plague was of infinitely greater moment than any war or constitutional change could ever be.

Effects of the Black Death.

The effects of the pestilence were far-reaching. The

total population was, undoubtedly, considerably reduced. Thousands of villeins and cottars died without heirs, and the lands they possessed went back to their lords. Entries in the Court Rolls such as the following were common:—

“..... Simon Mnst died, seized of¹ a Messuage,² and $\frac{1}{2}$ acres of land in Stadset, and has no heir. Therefore it is fitting that the aforesaid land be taken into the hands of the lord.”

At first sight this might appear to be a good thing for the lord. But how was he to cultivate his lands which were thus increased?

Previously a custom had grown up by which the lord sometimes, though not always, took a money-payment from his villein instead of labour-services and used it to hire labourers to cultivate his demesne. But the scarcity of labourers had caused a rise in wages, and the lord could no longer hire so many labourers with the money he received. If he tried to return to the old system of labour-services the villeins might become discontented and take to flight. The latter were always sure of a welcome on some other manor where the lord had more land on his hands than he could cultivate; and was only too glad to lease holdings to the newcomers at moderate rents. Thus the lords were assailed with difficulties on every side. As one mode of relief they tried to keep down the wages of the labourers.

The Statute of Labourers.

In 1349 Edward III. issued a proclamation, which was later embodied in an Act passed in 1351, called the

¹ seized of. legal form, meaning “possessing.”

² Messuage: originally land intended to be occupied, or actually occupied, as a site for a dwelling house and out buildings, etc. In modern legal language it means a homestead with out-buildings and surrounding land.

Statute of Labourers In this Act it was ordained that every man and woman in England of whatever condition they may be bond or free able in body and under sixty years of age not living by merchandise or being an artificer and not having property whereby they may live shall serve the master requiring him or her at the old rate of pay But the Statute proved • powerless to prevent wages rising for the scarcity of labour was so great that many landowners competed with one another for labourers and offered more than the stipulated rates

The only effect of the law was to irritate the labourers and drive them into rebellion For about thirty years after the Black Death the English countryside was full of unrest Statutes were passed causing severe punishments to be inflicted upon all who disobeyed their lords Towns were forbidden to harbour runaways and the lotter F—to denote falsity—was branded upon the forehead of all who absented themselves from work and thus broke the agreement with the master

John Ball

Indignation at such treatment was fanned by John Ball the mad priest of Kent who went about the country endeavouring to make the peasants realise the injustice of villeinage Why he asked should the rich dwell in fine houses while the poor had to endure pain and travail in the fields? He preached sermons from his famous text—

When Adam delved and Eve span
Who was then the gentleman?"

By this he meant that in the beginning of things

there was no distinction such as existed between lord and labourer, so why should there be one now?

But perhaps even the peasants might not have given violent expression to their resentment had not the government of Richard II. unwisely increased taxation to carry on the Hundred Years' War. In 1377 a "poll" or "head" tax of one groat or 4d. was imposed on every grown-up member of the population. In 1379 the people paid according to their means, the poorest paying only one groat as before, but the rich paying more. In 1381, however, every person over fifteen years of age was called upon to pay three groats. Now this was a very heavy tax on the poorer classes, for a groat was worth more than 10s. in our money to-day. Thus, if a man had three children over fifteen years of age, he had to pay sums equal in modern money to more than £4, 10s. for them, and £3 for his wife and himself.

The Peasants' Revolt.

The result was that everywhere men avoided payment. On the attempt of the government to enforce the collection of the tax there were riots throughout the country, which swelled into the great Peasants' Revolt of 1381. John Ball, who was in prison, was set free. The men of Kent and Essex marched on London, and under the leadership of Wat Tyler began to wreak a terrible vengeance on all who had anything to do with the hated tax. Lawyers who fell into their hands were immediately put to death, for it was this class which had helped the landowners to make and enforce the "law to keep the labourers down." It was they who, as a contemporary poet, William Langland, wrote in the *Vision of Piers Plowman*:—



THE KING AND WAT TYLER.

(From an illustration in Froissart's "Chronicles.")

"Pleded for penyes and poundes the law,
And not for love of oure Lord unloosed their lippes
ones.¹"

The boy king, Richard, met the rebels of Essex at Mile End and listened to their demands. He promised that all their grievances would be redressed, that the peasants would henceforth be free, that they would be permitted to pay rents for their lands instead of giving service, and that all the rebels would be pardoned. At Smithfield, to the men of Kent the king renewed his promises—after an exciting scene in which Wat Tyler was struck down by the Mayor of London.

¹ Once.

But the king's promises were as pie-crust. When the rebellion was over he declared to the peasants:—"Villeins you were, and villeins you are. In bondage you shall abide." John Ball and other leaders of the revolt were hanged. Yet perhaps the guilt of this betrayal falls rather on the royal advisers, and on the landowning class to which they belonged, than on the young king himself, who was hardly old enough to impose his will on them.

But gradually, through natural causes, the system of villeinage died out. The lord agreed to accept a money payment in place of labour services, and the villein became a "copyholder," holding his land in virtue of the copy of an extract from the manor roll. Land also began to be leased for a number of years to tenants who found their own labour. Such a tenant became a "leaseholder." In a few cases a man held land unconditionally, and was known as a "freeholder." These changes, together with the development of sheep-farming, solved the labour problem for the lords, but of this we shall treat in another chapter.

16.—THE DEATH IN THE HOMES OF THE PEOPLE.

[The following, from *The Coming of the Friars* by A. Jessop, is a little picture of the plague as it affected many homes in England and elsewhere. It is also interesting as giving an example of the rights which a lord possessed over those of servile birth.]

Was Thomas Porter at Little Cornard somewhat past his prime when the plague came? It spared him and

his old wife it seems but for his sons and daughters the hope of his eld and the pride of his manhood where were they? He and the good wife cowering over the turf fire did they dare to talk with quivering lips and clouded eyes about the days when the little ones had clambered up to the strong father's knee or tiny arms were held out to the rough yeoman as he reached his home? Oh the desolation and the loneliness No fault of thine de u wife—not mine It is the Lord let Him do what seemeth Him good!

Thomas Porter had a neighbor one John Stone a man of small substance he owned a couple of acres under the lord poor land it was hardly paying for the tillage and I suppose the cottage upon it was his own so far as any man's copyhold dwelling was his own in those days The Black Death came to that cottage among the rest and John Stone and wife and children all were swept away Nay not all little Margery Stone was spared but she had not a kinsman upon earth Poor little maid she was barely nine years old and absolutely alone! Who cared? Thomas Porter and his weeping wife cared and they took little Margery to their home and they comforted themselves for all that they had lost and the little maid became unto them as a daughter Henceforth life was less dreary for the old couple But five years passed and Margery had grown up to be a sturdy damsel and very near the marriageable age

Oh ho! friend Porter what is it we have heard men tell? That when the Black Death came upon us your house was left unto you desolate and there remained neither child nor child Who is this? Then someone told the steward or told the lord and thereupon ensued

inquiry. What right had Thomas Porter to adopt a child? She belonged to the lord, and he had the right of guardianship. Aye! and the right of disposing of her in marriage too. Thomas Porter, with a heavy heart, was summoned before the homage. He pleaded that the marriage of the girl did not belong to the lord by right, and that on some ground or other, which is not set down, she was not his property at all. That might have been very true or it might not, but one thing was certain, Thomas Porter had no right to her, and so the invariable result followed—he had to pay a fine. What else ensued we shall never know.

An interesting romance of the Black Death is *The Gathering of Brother Hilarius*, by Michael Fairless.

17.—IN A MEDIEVAL TOWN.

In the Middle Ages towns were neither so numerous nor so big as they are to-day. Many indeed presented the appearance of overgrown villages. They were all more or less directly connected with agriculture, for one must remember that the great factories teeming with workers and machinery, which are a feature of our modern cities, did not then exist. Even as late as the sixteenth century artisans were liable to be called on to help with the harvest. But, generally speaking, the town dweller had a greater measure of freedom than the inhabitant of the manor, and many towns, particularly in the reigns of Richard I. and John, secured charters granting them the right to govern themselves. Such towns elected their own governing officials.

What should we have seen in a walk through one of these towns? We should have found that the buildings

were constructed mostly of wood. Upper storeys projected into the streets. In place of our modern shops



A MEDIEVAL STREET SCENE

(The scene is based on the illustration from the Bayeux Tapestry)

population men gradually ceased to provide for all their own needs and specialised in particular occupations. Trading developed and men exchanged their products for those of others. If a farmer wished leather he would give wheat to a leather worker in exchange. If a baker wanted clothing he would give bread to a weaver to get it. In the course of time money was used as a means by which goods might be more easily exchanged. Gradually special trades developed like those of smiths, bikers, ironmongers, shoemakers, together with merchants of all kinds and their numbers increased according to the demand for goods.

As time went on the merchants banded themselves into associations or guilds called Merchant Guilds and in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries these guilds were very important indeed. Their main objects were to regulate the trade of the town and to secure it for the towns-men. The right to form a guild was granted by the king. Members of the guild paid an admission fee, and obtained certain privileges. They supervised all buying and selling. Frequently they were allowed to make purchases before any other member of the community and they exacted tolls from non-gildsmen who were permitted to sell wholesale but only to members of the guild. Rules were drawn up which guild members had to observe and examples of which are to be found in the ordinances of the Guilds of Southampton and of Lynn Regis (King's Lynn). The latter guild, like most others, had a hall and supported thirteen chaplains to pray for the king and for the souls of all the aldermen, brethren and benefactors of the said Guild. So strong did the guilds become in time that in some English towns they were practically the governing body. No

and being supervised by the craft guilds. The craft guilds were not as has sometimes been said, the same as modern Trade Unions. They included all concerned with a particular craft, masters as well as journeymen and apprentices, whereas a trade union consists only of journeymen while it may also help to regulate the employment of apprentices.

During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the craft guilds increased in importance. The town authorities encouraged them, for through these guilds they were able to regulate industry, which was one of their duties. But as time went on power fell mainly into the hands of the wealthier members.

The craft guild regulations were intended to secure that only articles of good quality should be produced. Night-work was forbidden, for it led to bad workmanship in a poor light. A high standard was required, and guild inspectors went on periodic rounds to see that this was obtained. The Cordwainers, for example, decreed that those who shape and make shoes shall mix no manner of leather with other, but shall make them wholly of one leather.

And for the maintaining and performing of these points there were chosen four proved men of the mystery¹ who are charged to go each month at least and at all times when they shall hear that there is necessity, throughout the trade and make search. Those found using inferior material were to be punished. The price charged for an article was to be a fair one. But even these regulations did not always prevent the production of careless and scamped work.

To ensure skilled workmanship each craftsman had to

¹ Mystery—mystery. Derived from *myster* = craft or trade. From *Fr.* *myster*.

concluded with the Mercers, who presented Jesus, Mary, the twelve Apostles, and Angels.

Morality plays were also performed, in which alle-



BEHIND THE SCENES AT THE MIRACLE PLAY

(Notice the actors dressed as devils, and the men, who with drums, trumpets, flaming torches, etc., are producing the effects indicated on page 114.)

(Reconstructed from contemporary sources by Gordon Browne.)

gorical personages, such as Life, Death, Greed, and Repentance, were represented, but these were most popular during the fifteenth century. In the sixteenth

century the Elizabethan drama supplanted both types of play and professional players took the place of the gildsmen.

The gilds then were a very striking feature of town life in the Middle Ages and while they helped their members in sickness or in trouble of other kinds they also devoted much of their wealth to education and charity.

18.—MARKETS AND FAIRS.

The event of the week in the lives of the people of the Middle Ages was the market. This was held in many towns and villages, particularly those situated at cross-roads, or near a castle or a monastery. Permission to hold a market was granted by the king, either to a lord or a monastery or a town. Tolls were paid on all goods sold, and officials were appointed whose duty it was to prevent cheating.

What might be regarded as a periodical—usually an annual—extension of the market was the fair. Fairs originated largely in connection with religious ceremonies. Indeed, they were sometimes held in churchyards, but this practice was forbidden in the reign of Edward I.

One of the greatest of these fairs, rivalling those of Nijni Novgorod and Leipzig in modern times, was held at Stourbridge, near Cambridge. Stourbridge was conveniently situated for the two great medieval ports, Lynn and Blakeney, at the mouth of the Great Ouse. Proclaimed on the 4th September of each year, the fair opened on the 8th and lasted three weeks. About that date all kinds of people would gather; merchants from Genoa and Venice bearing Eastern produce—spices and precious stones, and perhaps silk; Spaniards with wine and war-horses; Baltic traders with tar, and furs, and amber, together with churchmen, students and soldiers, lords and labourers, minstrels and jugglers, all rubbing shoulders with one another. The area of the ground given over to the fair was about half a square mile, and long avenues or streets were lined with booths. Each avenue exhibited the produce of a certain industry. Here were fruits and foreign spices, there were iron-mongery and leather. Yonder would be seen the steward

of an English lord selling his wool and purchasing fish cloth leather and kitchen utensils English merchants would be observed selling tin from Cornwall and iron from Sussex where there was wood in abundance for feeding the smelting furnaces Villagers travelling long distances bought goods not merely for themselves but on behalf of their fellows and the wagons went ceaselessly to and fro bringing and taking away merchandise

Experts in money matters Lombards would be seen changing money Jews formerly did this but they were expelled from England at the close of the thirteenth century Christians were forbidden in those days to lend money for interest In *Piers Plowman* the poet Langland refers to the practice of money lending —

Didst ever use usury in all thy lifetime?

Nay saving in my youth with Lombards and Jews

Frequently men would quarrel over weights and measure and in spite of the fact that by the Assize of Measures a standard was fixed there were many disputes Dishonesty was by no means unknown as we learn from these further lines in *Piers Plowman* —

I have been covetous quoth this curteise I do acknowledge it

Once I served Sir At-stile and was his pryncipe bound

First I learnt to be a peger two of lies

Then to weigh false was my second lesson

To Winchester and Weyhill I went to the fair

With all kinds of merchandise as my master bide

But had not grace of Gude gone with me and my goods

They had been unsold seven yeres Gods my witness "

But these things could not be done with impunity. Those who did not keep to the "just price" or who gave false weight were tried by a court held on the fair ground, and called the Court of Piepowder, corrupted from "*Pied Poudreux*," which is the French for "dusty foot," and refers to the vendors who had travelled a long way by road. Punishment was meted out on the spot, and many a "dusty foot" spent part of the time in the pillory instead of in plying his trade in the booth.

Fun and frolic characterised the fair even as to-day. Performing bears, a common sight from Saxon times, attracted considerable crowds. Strolling players, jugglers, minstrels, and acrobats called "tumbler," who turned somersaults, stood on their heads, and walked and danced on their hands, were very popular.



A FORESTALLER IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

(Based on a sixteenth century print.)

The "Forestaller" bought up the supply of goods before they reached the open market, the "Regrater" bought them to resell at a higher price—both transactions being punishable offences in the Middle Ages.



TCLIFE S ING OUT HIS HEAC HLM
 (Iro illey du vbyll I lea us)

Those who believed in Wycliffe, and spread his ideas were nicknamed Lollards or Bahblers. They declared that the Church was not adhering to the tenets of the Bible, and in order to make this appeal more effective, Wycliffe translated the Scriptures into the English tongue, so that those who were able could read them for themselves. Hitherto in our country they could be read only in Latin, a language which few people understood. By this translation, which was written in the East Midland dialect, Wycliffe did much to make that dialect the standard English tongue.

Another writer who helped to mould the language was Geoffrey Chaucer. He lived during the fourteenth century, and was the contemporary of William Langland and John Wycliffe. Chaucer gives us some admirable pictures of the people of his time. In the *Canterbury Tales* we set out with him from the Tabard Inn at Southwark, along with other pilgrims, to the tomb of Thomas Becket at Canterbury. We are in the company of men and women of all classes, such as the knight who "loved chivalrye, truth, and honour, freedom and curteseye," the nun who spoke French "after the scole¹ of Stratford atte² Bowe," the Oxford student who loved his books, but had "but litel gold in cofre,³" the miller who could break a door open "at a reuning⁴ with his heed,⁵" and the shipman "who rode upon a rouncy⁶ as he couthe.⁷" With mirth and story the pilgrims shortened the journey. So great a poet was Chaucer that he has been described as:—

"Our morning-star of song that led the way
To welcome the long-after coming beam
Of Spenser's light and Shakespéare's perfect day."

¹ school; ² at; ³ coffer; ⁴ running; ⁵ head; ⁶ a hackney, nag; ⁷ could.

Witchcraft.

The people of the Middle Ages were very superstitious. They believed in witchcraft and witch persecutions were common. Even men of considerable learning shared in this superstition. Persons suspected of witchcraft were seized, bound, and in some cases burned. Frequently they were thrown into rivers or ponds. If they sank they were held to be innocent, but if they succeeded in saving themselves they were said to be possessed of the devil and promptly put to death. Such beliefs and customs prevailed to a late age, and those who have read Sir Walter Scott's novel, *The Heart of Midlothian*, will remember how in the early eighteenth century one of the characters, Magdo Wildfire, ultimately died through being treated as a witch by the crowd.



A PORTRAIT OF A WITCH
(From an old print in the Victoria
and Albert Museum.)

Whereas the people of our realm rich and poor alike, were accustomed formerly in their games to practice archery and that now skill in the use of the bow having fallen almost wholly into disrepute our subjects give themselves up to the throwing of stones and of wood and of iron and some to handball and football, and hockey and others to coursing and cockfights, and even to other unseemly sports less useful and manly, whereby our realm—which God forbid—will soon it would appear be void of archers

We do hereby ordain that in all places a proclamation be made to this effect that every man, if he be able bodied shall upon holidays make use, in his games of bows and arrows and so learn and practice archery

Moreover we ordain that you prohibit under penalty of imprisonment all and sundry from such stone, wood, and iron throwing, handball football, or hockey, coursing and cock fighting, or other such idle games

Towards the close of the Middle Ages however gun powder (which had been introduced into our country in the thirteenth century) began to be increasingly used in warfare Firearms, first used in European warfare in the fourteenth century, gradually superseded the bow and arrows and soon it was no longer necessary to compel the practice of archery

Of the games played by children there was Hood Man Blind, a game rather like Blind Man's Buff, one difference being that the blind man was hit by the remaining players while he was groping. A somewhat similar game in which blind folding and striking occurred was Hot Cocks. As a rule, such games were much rougher than similar games today. Card games were



A SCHOOLMASTER AND HIS BOOKS.
(From Barclay's "Ship of Fools.")

To those boys who attended school, life did not consist wholly of amusement as the last paragraph in the following extract suggests.

An Unlucky Medieval Schoolmaster.

(An Extract from the Oxford Coroners' Roll.¹)

"It befel on Thursday, the morrow of St. Nicholas Day, in the thirtieth year of King Edward (1301), that John de Neushom, clerk and schoolmaster, was found dead by

¹ Coulton, *A Medieval Garner*.



JOAN OF ARC

(From the woodcut by Laneux in the *Fontaine* series)

fought. Everyone knows the two famous ballads which tell of the deeds of the opposing leaders, Dooglas and Percy.

Robert III. was also old when in 1300 he succeeded to the crown, and was quite unable to control his nobles. Even his brother, the Earl of Buchan, known as the "Wolf of Badenoch," ignored his authority. The "Wolf" seized some lands to which he had no claim, and Robert was too weak to punish him. Another example of the lawlessness in the country was seen when the Clan Chattan and the Clan Kay fought a pitched battle—with a selected number of men on each side—on the banks of the river Tay at Perth.

Robert III.'s son, James, was captured by the English. While James was a captive his father died, and his uncle, the Duke of Albany, governed the kingdom. At this time the Highlanders and Lowlanders came into conflict, and in 1411 the battle of "the Red Harlaw" was fought. Victory lay with the Lowlanders. When James I. returned to Scotland he made a determined effort to end the lawlessness of the nobles. In this he was successful, but some of the nobles, incensed at his harshness, murdered him at Perth in 1437.

James II. and James III. were both minors when they came to the throne, and no truer saying could be applied to the country during their reigns than the words, "Woe to the land whose king is a child," for their reigns, which occupied half a century after the death of James I., are records of straggles amongst the nobles. James II. succeeded in humbling the great House of Douglas which had acquired a power rivalling that of the Crown, but James III., in a rising of his nobles against him, was slain at Sauchieburn in 1488.

The End of the Auld Alliance.

His successor, James IV, proved himself a strong king. He endeavoured to restore the country to order while he encouraged industry and learning throughout the land. He married Margaret, daughter of Henry VII, and, as a result of that marriage, Scotland and England were united under one king a hundred years later. But the marriage did not at once make the two countries friendly. In an attack upon England, in accordance with the French alliance, the king was slain at Flodden, and once again the country was left with a child king, James V. Again there was a struggle for power in Scotland, a struggle which was to some extent ended when James himself was old enough to take over the reins of government. Unfortunately for the king, who was a strong Roman Catholic, the movement known as the Reformation (of which we shall read later) added to his troubles, for many of the Scottish nobles inclined to the Protestant religion and to the establishment of more friendly relations with England. The English defeated his army at Solway Moss in 1542, and this disaster hastened his end. A daughter, born as James lay on his death-bed, became his successor as Queen Mary, and during her minority the land was ruled by her mother, who was a Frenchwoman, and whose aim, indeed, was to unite France and Scotland as one country. In the year 1560 Scotland, in spite of the strong Catholicism of its queen, Mary, and of her mother, became a Protestant country. France remained Catholic, and in those days when religious questions were so prominent in the minds of all men, it was impossible for a Protestant country to be in alliance with a Catholic one. The

Franco-Scottish Alliance was therefore broken, and new and more friendly relations with England began.

23.—SCOTLAND IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES.

II.—SOCIAL LIFE.

The Beginning of the Scottish Parliament.

Before the War of Independence a Great Council, sometimes called a Privy Council, existed in Scotland as in England. This included the chief nobles, bishops, and abbots in the land. If the king were strong he forced the council to do as he wished; if he were weak the council over-rode his authority.

In 1326 Robert Bruce summoned the first real Scottish parliament. It met at Cambuskenneth Abbey, near Stirling, and included not merely the chief nobles and churchmen, but also burghesses—that is, free citizens from the royal burghs, for the townsmen were becoming an important class in Scotland as well as in England. In 1127, when James I. was on the throne, a further development took place. An Act was passed ordering the smaller barons of the shires, and the burghesses of the royal burghs, to send representatives—"two or more wise men" according to their area. But this Act was soon forgotten, and it was not until the sixteenth century that it was revived and put into operation, and the three classes—Lords Spiritual (churchmen), barons, and burghesses—took their places in parliament, or, as it was now frequently called, the "Estates," a name taken from the French. The Estates sat in a single chamber, not in two houses as in England.

During the Middle Ages the Scottish parliament

was very weak. As a rule the smaller barons did not attend. Power was very often relegated to a committee called the Lords of the Articles which practically took the place of parliament. The greater nobles endeavoured to get the committee to act according to their wishes. When it originated in the reign of David II no burgesses sat on it. Afterwards the number of burgesses on the



THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ARCHERY (see page 135)
(From the Lindisfarne Psalter)

committee varied according to the strength or weakness of the king. If he were weak few of the burgesses were appointed, if strong they were more numerous. It should be noted that unlike England it was only the royal burghs which had the right to send representatives to parliament.

Scottish law was based on the Roman system which was derived through the French for with the Franco-Scottish Alliance the anglicising of Scotland to which we referred in a previous chapter, ceased and French had now become the dominating influence.

Medieval Laws

Some of the medieval laws throw an interesting light upon Scotland at the time. Wolves must have

existed in the country, for a law was passed declaring that they must be destroyed. Crows also were to be destroyed as they damaged the crops, and no hunting or hawking was permitted in cornfields between Easter and the harvest. French soldiers who came to help Scotland against England were surprised at the regulations which prevented them from riding through cornfields. Other laws ordered all Scotsmen between sixteen and sixty to be trained for war, and to possess warlike weapons always ready. Archery was enforced, and football forbidden as in England.

Towns and Trade.

Trade was carried on chiefly with Flanders, and many expert Flemish weavers settled in Scotland and taught the people how to weave fine cloth. Agriculture, however, did not make great progress, and one reason given by a historian called John Major, who lived in the sixteenth century, is that leases were short, and the tenant naturally hesitated to pay money to develop his farm when he might soon be turned out. It is noteworthy that in Scotland there were no revolts of the peasantry such as took place in England and on the Continent. If we are to judge by the writings of John Major, and of a Spaniard called Pedro de Ayala who visited the country about the end of the fifteenth century, fishing must have been an important industry. The country indeed was often referred to as "fishy Scotland." Salmon, herrings, and dried fish called stock fish, were regularly exported to the Continent.

In the towns in Scotland there were merchant guilds and craft guilds. The latter, however, were late in developing and did not really exist until the fifteenth

and Ayala specially noticed that "in Scotland many speak the French language." Yet, curiously enough, the influence of the English poet Chaucer was felt more in Scotland than in England at this period. James I., Robert Henryson, William Dunbar, and Gawain Douglas were poets of high quality, and all showed the influence of Chaucer. James I. is said to be the author of the dream poem, *The King's Quair*; Henryson, among other writings, continued one of Chaucer's stories, *The Testament of Cresseid*; Douglas wrote the *Palice of Honour*; while Dunbar celebrated the wedding of James IV. and the Princess Margaret of England in *The Thistle and the Rose*. The following is a stanza of welcome to Margaret

century It is interesting to note that the Scots attached great importance to the test which the apprentice had to undergo at the end of his apprenticeship As in



THE CRAFT GUILD EXAMINATION OF A MASON AND A CARPENTER.
(From a MS. in the British Museum.)

England men of particular occupations lived in separate parts of the town, and thus we have names of streets in Scotland such as Potterrow, Cindlemaker Row and Fishrow.

Learning and Literature

Learning in Scotland was not neglected By the reign of James IV three of the four universities at present existing had been founded—St Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen Many Scottish students travelled in France,

and Ayala specially noticed that "in Scotland many speak the French language." Yet, curiously enough, the influence of the English poet Chaucer was felt more in Scotland than in England at this period. James I., Robert Henryson, William Dunbar, and Gawain Douglas were poets of high quality, and all showed the influence of Chaucer. James I. is said to be the author of the dream poem, *The King's Quair*; Henryson, among other writings, continued one of Chaucer's stories, *The Testament of Cresseid*; Douglas wrote the *Palice of Honour*; while Dunbar celebrated the wedding of James IV. and the Princess Margaret of England in *The Thistle and the Rose*. The following is a stanza of welcome to Margaret on her arrival at Holyrood:—

"Welcum tho Roso botho rede and whyto,
 Welcum tho flour of our delyto!
 Oure rejoysyng frome tho sone beme,
 Welcum of Scotland to be Quene;
 Welcum of Scotland to be Quene!"

Further Reading and Reference.

See *The Fair Maid of Perth*, by Sir Walter Scott, and *Domestic Life in Scotland, 1488-1688*, by John Warrack



Time-Chart (1000-End of Middle Ages).

(For Revision and Reference.)

DATE	BRITISH—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL	FOREIGN
1000	Knut King of all England 1017-35	
	Battle of Hastings, 1066	
	Norman Conquest of England 1066-71	Gregory VII, Pope, 1073-85
	Domesday Book, 1085-86	First Crusade preached, 1095. Jerusalem captured, 1099.
1100		
	Battle of the Standard, 1138	
	Levy of Scutage, 1159	Second Crusade, 1147-49
	Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164	Frederick Barbarossa, Emperor, 1152-90.
	Becket, Archbishop, 1162-70	
	Treaty of Falaise, 1171	
	Assize of Arms, 1181	Turks recapture Jerusalem, 1187.
1200	John loses Normandy, &c., 1204	Third Crusade, 1189-92
	Magna Carta, 1215	Fourth Crusade, 1202-4.
	Provisions of Oxford, 1258	
	De Montfort's Parliament, 1265	
	Battle of Evesham, 1265	
	Statute of Gloucester (<i>Quo Warranto</i>), 1278	Seventh Crusade, 1270
	Statute of Mortmain, 1279	
	Edward I conquers Wales, 1284	
	Model Parliament, 1295	Christians driven from Palestine, 1291
1300	Confirmation of the Charters, 1297.	

Time-Chart (1000-End of Middle Ages).

(For Revision and Reference.)

DATE	BRITISH—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL	FOREIGN.
1300	<p>Battle of Bannockburn, 1314. Treaty of Northampton, 1328. Sluys, 1340. Parliament divided into Two Houses, 1341. Crécy, 1346. Neville's Cross, 1346. The Black Death, 1348. Statutes of Labourers, 1349, 1351. Poitiers, 1356. Peace of Bretigny, 1360. English conquests retaken by French, 1370-80. Poll Tax instituted, 1377. Peasants' Revolt, 1381. Death of Wycliffe, 1384.</p>	<p>Removal of the Popes to Avignon, 1309-1379.</p>
1400	<p>Death of Chaucer, 1400. Agincourt, 1415. Treaty of Troyes, 1420. French win back English conquests, 1430-53.</p>	<p>Execution of John Huss, 1415.</p>
	<p>Jack Cade's Rebellion, 1450. Caxton's Printing Press, 1476. Battle of Bosworth, 1485. Court of Star Chamber, 1487.</p>	<p>Joan of Arc executed, 1412.</p> <p>Turks capture Constantinople, 1453. (Dispersal of Greek Scholars over Europe)</p> <p>Gutenberg sets up first printing press, 1462</p> <p>Diaz rounds Cape of Good Hope, 1486.</p>

PART III.—SOCIAL AND INTELLECTUAL PROGRESS.

24—AN AGE OF CHANGE AND DISCOVERY.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century much of what the Middle Ages stood for began to disappear. Feudalism crumbled away; the baronage became weaker; kings and nations became more powerful; knowledge was made more accessible; new inventions, new forms of religion, and new lands appeared. All these combined to create a new world.

The New Learning.

We cannot state precisely when the *Renaissance*, or rebirth of learning, as it is sometimes called, began among the countries of Western Europe. It was a gradual movement. The ancient Greeks knew much about such subjects as philosophy, physics, and mathematics, but when the Roman Empire fell and barbarian hordes overran Europe, this knowledge was for centuries lost to the western peoples. The "Dark Ages" had set in.

During the later Middle Ages knowledge of the ancient classics gradually filtered through to the west, especially after 1453, when Constantinople was captured by the Turks, and the Greek scholars fled westward from the city. As they fled they took with them many of the old parchment scrolls of their forefathers. Probably most of the scholars settled in Italy, for that country was more favourable to literature and art than any other. There Dante had written *The Divine Comedy*, one of the greatest poems of all time, and writers like Petrarch and

Boccaccio had become known all over Europe. Our own Chaucer was greatly influenced by them.

Interest was stimulated not only in literature, but also in painting, sculpture and music. Many of the greatest Italian painters such as Raphael, Michelangelo, and *Leonardo da Vinci*, did their work at this time. They painted pictures which to-day are among the world's greatest treasures.

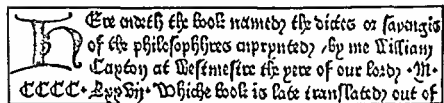
From Italy and other countries in which the scholars had settled their teachings spread throughout Europe. Soon a genuine love of learning grew up, and many new schools and universities were founded.

The Invention of Printing.

Meanwhile in 1462 John Gutenberg, a native of Mayence, set up the first printing press, though it is doubtful whether he was really the inventor of printing. Hitherto, for the most part, books had been produced by the monks working laboriously in the cloister. As a rule, their works were beautifully illuminated, and some of them may be seen to-day at the British Museum. But when the art of printing spread throughout Europe there was no longer need for the monks to spend their days on this work. In England William Caxton set up a wooden printing press at the sign of the "Red Pale" in the Almonry at Westminster and printed many books, such as *The Game and Play of Chess*, *Chaucer's Canterbury Tales*, Malory's *Morte D'Arthur*, and other works. Printed books became an effective means of spreading knowledge, and writers began to cater not only for scholars but for ordinary people. England produced great scholars in Dean Colet and Sir Thomas More, while one of their

friends, who did much to advance the "New Learning," was a Dutchman called Erasmus

Printing was beneficial in another way. In almost



PART OF ONE OF THE EARLIEST BOOKS PRINTED IN ENGLAND.

A part of the Dialogue to "The Dietes or sayengis of the Philosophres," printed by Caxton at Westminster in 1477

"Here endeth the booke named the dietes or sayengis (sayings) of the philosophres enprynted (printed) by me William Caxton at Westmestre the yere of our Lord MCCCCLXXVII (1477) whiche booke is late translated out of" etc.

every country till this time more than one dialect had been spoken, and it was difficult to say which was the correct form of speech, but through the increasing publication of books a standard literary language came to be recognised in every land.

The Reformation

With the spread of knowledge men began to think for themselves and to question many of the things that the Church had taught. We have seen that in the fourteenth century John Wycliffe, who translated the Bible from Latin into English, challenged some of the doctrines that the Church was preaching and urged the need for reform.

The ideas of Wycliffe were taken up by John Huss, a native of Bohemia and rector of the university of Prague. His preachings led to his excommunication from the Church, and he was later burned alive. The bones of the dead Wycliffe also were ordered to be burned. But the movement received fresh strength when a German peasant

named Martin Luther, who had become Professor at Wittenberg University, became its leader. Luther defied the Pope, and many of the German people supported him.

The Protestants.

In 1529 some of the German princes banded themselves together and issued what they called the "Protest of Spires," declaring that they had the right to decide for themselves what religion was best for the people. From this Protest the name "Protestant" is derived. It was no longer a question of reform of the old Church but of the *establishment of a new Church altogether.*

Soon the movement spread to other countries. In Switzerland, a clergyman, named Zwingli, was its leader, while Calvin, who did most of his work at Geneva, had an even greater influence and was the inspirer of John Knox, the great Scottish reformer.

In France there was little desire on the part of the people to change their religion despite the activities of a strong Protestant party—the Huguenots. In England the old Church was not uprooted immediately, but by the reign of Elizabeth the new faith may be said to have been finally established. In Scotland, where the movement had been going on gradually for about two hundred years, Protestantism, through the efforts of John Knox, became the recognised religion in 1560.

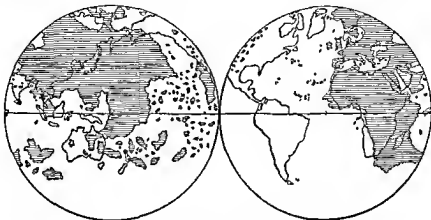
Early Explorers.

Another thing which helped to broaden men's outlook was the *discovery of new lands and new trade routes.* In early times trade with the East was carried on overland from India, Persia, and China, to the ports on the eastern Levant. There eastern products were collected

and taken to Genoa and Venice where the trade and profit of the city consisteth of all nations." Shakepeare in his play *The Merchant of Venice* gives us an idea of the extent of the Venetian trade when he tells how the ships of Antonio were wrecked in places as far distant from each other as the Goodwins and Tripoli —

Antonio hath a ship of rich lading wrecked on the
 narrow seas the Goodwins I think they call the place,
 and

Africa on the way southward, Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope. His effort was eclipsed in 1498 by Vasco da Gama, who rounded the Cape and sailed



A MAP OF THE WORLD, FROM A GLOBE PRODUCED IN 1492

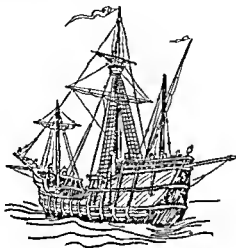
The Outline of the World as we know it to-day is sketched in to show how far the old cartographers were astray. It will be noted that when this globe was prepared America was unknown, and that Asia is made to stretch eastwards more than half way across the Pacific Ocean

thence to Calicut in India. The new sea route so long sought for had been found. The Mediterranean ceased to be the main commercial highway between Europe and the East. Venice and Genoa declined. Moreover certain great cities in the north of Germany, forming what was known as the Hanseatic League (whose chief object was to carry on trade in Northern Europe), lost their importance. In the course of time the Portuguese and Spanish ports, and later the Dutch and English ports, took their places as the commercial centres of Europe.

The Discovery of America.

Before the expedition of Vasco da Gama, however, a great and more far-reaching discovery had been made. This was

the discovery not of a trade route but of a continent. In 1492 a penniless Genoese merchant named Christopher Columbus who believed that the world was round—by no means a common belief in those days—set out with



THE SANTA-MARIA—ONE OF THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS
(Drawn from a model)

the object of reaching India not by sailing round the coast of Africa but by sailing westward. With ships and money lent him by Queen Isabella of Spain (after other royal personages had refused) and with a crew of eighty-eight men Columbus sailed south to the Canaries and then westward across the uncharted seas. After two months and nine days he set foot on the Bahamas which he believed to be part of India. Hence the name the West Indies. He made other voyages to America on one of which he touched the mainland but even until his death in 1506 he cherished the belief that he had reached the east coast of Asia.

Europe was startled at the new discovery and fresh

voyages began. Vasco da Gama, we have seen, discovered the new route to India. Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, sailed round the south of America through the strait which now bears his name, and thence westward across the Pacific. He landed at the Philippines only to be killed in a fight with the natives. But three years after setting out, one of his ships named the *Vittoria*, with a crew of thirty one men, having sailed ever westward, reached Seville. It was the first ship that had sailed round the globe.

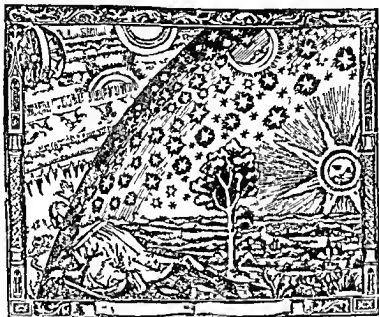
For trading purposes a new type of sailing ship, superior to the Mediterranean galleys, was now used to brave the high seas of the Atlantic, and the mariner kept his course by the compass and the stars.

English, French, and Dutch Explorers.

England, France, and Holland played a part, though a belated and less successful one, in the work of exploration. As Magellan had sailed round the south of America, so their sailors sought the passage round the north—the North-West Passage it was called. Although they failed, Sebastian Cabot, an Englishman, whose father was a Venetian pilot, discovered Newfoundland, while Cartier and Champlain annexed Canada for France.

The results were important, particularly for England and Holland. Spain and Portugal, being the homelands of the greatest explorers, naturally benefited most. But at a later date British and Dutch enterprise challenged that of the Spaniards. The Dutch were already revolting against the rule of Philip II., whom some of them disliked because he was a Catholic, and all of them because he was a despot. The English, too, quarrelled with Philip, and our sailors, by defeating the Spanish Armada in 1588

struck a deadly blow at Spain's naval power. Soon therefore the main European trade passed to London and Antwerp and Italy and Germany declined as trading centres.



LOOKING OVER THE EDGE OF THE WORLD

The scene as it was imagined to be before the discoveries of the Renaissance.
(A very old print)

Great Scientists of the Renaissance

We have seen the beneficial results of the invention of printing. But there were other not less important scientific triumphs. Nicolas Copernicus, who was born in 1473 at Thorn in Poland, showed that the earth moved round the sun. Galileo, born at Pisa in 1564, Johann Kepler, born near Stuttgart in 1571, and Isaac Newton, born at Woolsthorpe, a hamlet in Lincolnshire, in 1642, the year in which Galileo died, developed the theory laid down by

Copernicus. Galileo, although not the original inventor of the telescope, produced a type which was in demand throughout the whole of Europe. William Harvey, an



A SURGICAL OPERATION IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.
(From an old print)

Englishman and a keen student of anatomy, born in 1578, demonstrated the circulation of the blood. And the growing use of gunpowder revolutionised the methods of warfare and made it useless for knights to build castles as strongholds, for these could now be very easily shattered. Feudalism then had largely passed away, and men had entered upon a new phase of life.

The Passing of the Old Order.

(Extract from Freudo's *History of England*.)

"A change was coming upon the world, the meaning and direction of which even still is hidden from us, a change

from era to era. The paths trodden by the footsteps of ages were broken up, old things were passing away, and the faith and the life of ten centuries were dissolving like a dream. Chivalry was dying, the abbey and the castle were soon together to crumble into ruins, and all the forms, desires, beliefs, convictions of the old world were passing away never to return. A new continent had risen up beyond the western sea. The floor of heaven, inlaid with stars, had sunk back into an infinite abyss of immeasurable space, and the firm earth itself, unfixed from its foundations, was seen to be but a small atom in the awful vastness of the universe. In the fabric of habit in which they had so laboriously built for themselves, mankind were to remain no longer.

And now it has all gone—like an unsubstantial pageant faded, and between us and the old English there lies a gulf of mystery which the prose of the historian will never adequately bridge. They cannot come to us, and our imagination can but feebly penetrate to them. Only among the aisles of the cathedral, only as we gaze upon their silent figures sleeping on their tombs, some faint conceptions float before us of what these men were when they were alive, and perhaps in the sound of church bells, that peculiar creation of medieval age, which fills upon the ear like the echo of a vanished world.

Further Reading and Reference.

For a glimpse of the great men and women of the time see Edith Nichol's *The Renaissance*. For an account of the discoveries of Columbus, G. E. Mitton's *Columbus* may be read. *The Household of Sir Thomas More*, by A. Manning, gives a vivid picture of the great scholar.

25.—STRENGTHENING THE GOVERNMENT.

Henry VII. helped to bring about two most important changes—the destruction of feudalism and the strengthening of the Crown. He gave England the strong government that she required after the exhaustion of the Wars of the Roses. Belonging himself to a branch of the House of Lancaster, he did much to end the bitterness that existed between the rival houses by marrying Elizabeth, daughter of the Yorkist king, Edward IV. His measures firmly established the Tudor dynasty on the throne. Two rebellions during his reign, that of Lambert Simnel and that of Perkin Warbeck, were easily quelled.

Henry was determined to reduce the power of the nobility, which was both a menace to him and an evil to the country. By fines or confiscation he deprived the nobles of much of their wealth. Those who lived luxuriously were forced to give him money; others who lived plainly were told that they must have money saved, and were called upon also to support the Crown. These contributions were called "benevolences." They were in name free gifts, but in reality compulsory. The nobles were forbidden to have armed retainers, and fines were inflicted on those who broke the law. The "Court of the Star Chamber" was set up in 1487 to try powerful offenders, and this court, tyrannical in method, did much to restore order as well as to fill the pockets of the king. Thus Henry made the nobles poorer and himself richer, and the royal coffers were well filled when Henry VIII. succeeded to the throne.

Henry VIII. was an autocrat, yet a popular and tactful ruler, and careful always to enlist the sympathy and

goodwill of parliament in his undertakings. In common with other countries, England was emerging from the mediæval stage. As she became stronger through her industry and trade, Henry determined to make her a vital force in international affairs. For this he was fortunate in choosing as his adviser Cardinal Wolsey, one of the great statesmen in our history.

As the nobles, not only in England but in all European countries, weakened the kings became stronger. They became jealous of each other, and then chief men when not adding to their own power was to prevent other kings from becoming too strong. Thus, if one king endeavoured to add to his possessions, his neighbour sought allies to adjust the balance. This theory of adjusting the balance between nations is known as the *Balance of Power*. Wolsey adopted this doctrine, which has prevailed from his time to the present day.

The Emperor Charles V. of Spain and Francis I., King of France, were the two great monarchs on the Continent. Each was jealous of the other, and each sought Henry's favour. In the quarrel between the two monarchs it was Wolsey's policy to throw England's power on the side of the country likely to be defeated, and so prevent the other country from gaining too much power. But an unforeseen incident suddenly brought about his fall.

Henry VIII. and the Church

Henry, who had no male heir, wished to obtain a dissolution of his marriage with Katherine of Aragon and take as his second wife Anne Bolyn. He failed to obtain the Pope's consent, and for this failure he blamed Wolsey, who shortly afterwards died in disgrace. Henry

in anger against the Pope, determined to make himself supreme head of the Church in England. In 1531 he forced the English clergy formally to recognise him as such. Sir Thomas More, perhaps the most learned, and John Fisher, the most saintly, of Englishmen at this time, were put to death for refusing to acknowledge the royal supremacy.

Thomas Cromwell was now Henry's adviser. Probably at his instigation the monasteries were dissolved, and their lands seized and distributed among the king's friends. But the caprice of Henry again showed itself. Just as Wolsey had incurred Henry's displeasure, and had been stripped of his greatness, so Cromwell, as a sequel to the king's unfortunate marriage (his fourth venture in matrimony) with Anne of Cleves, was suddenly charged with treason and executed. It should be noted that by his third wife, Jane Seymour, Henry had a son who became Edward VI.

Although Henry was opposed to the Pope, he was not a Protestant. He still held most of the Roman Catholic doctrines and had no desire to alter them. But when his son, Edward VI, came to the throne, there were many, particularly the Earl of Somerset, the Protector during Edward's minority, who wanted to uproot Roman Catholicism altogether. Thus in Edward's reign an English Prayer Book was issued, and Roman Catholic ornaments and images in churches were destroyed.

Edward died young and was succeeded by Mary, daughter of Henry VIII. and Queen Katherine. Mary was a staunch Roman Catholic and during her reign there was a violent reaction against Protestantism. Three Protestant bishops, Ridley, Latimer, and Craumer,

along with nearly three hundred humbler adherents of the new doctrine, perished at the stake. Persuaded to go to war against France by her husband, Philip II of Spain, Mary in 1558 lost Calais, "the chief jewel of the realm." The last foothold of the English in France had gone.



QUEEN ELIZABETH
(From a contemporary engraving)

Elizabeth

Mary was succeeded by her half sister, Elizabeth, who, as the daughter of Anne Boleyn, had almost no choice except to be a Protestant. But the new queen had no sympathy with extreme Protestantism, and was determined to settle the English Church on a broad basis which would

secure for it the support of all moderate Englishmen. The Pope's jurisdiction over England, it is true, was abolished by the Act of Supremacy in 1559, but the new Prayer-Book and the statement of doctrine contained in the Thirty-nine Articles were drafted so as to give as little offence as possible to those who still had a secret liking for the old faith. Elizabeth's caution had its reward. All, except the extreme Roman Catholics and the extreme Protestants or Puritans as they were called, accepted the new religious settlement, and it still forms the basis of Anglican Church government to-day.

But in spite of her success in composing the religious quarrels of her subjects Elizabeth's position remained a difficult one. Roman Catholics did not recognise her as sovereign, and maintained that the throne belonged by right to the next Catholic heir, Mary, Queen of Scots. There was a constant danger that the Catholic powers of the Continent would unite to depose the queen, whom they regarded as a heretic. The enmity between France and Spain, however, fostered by the skilful diplomacy of Elizabeth, made such a union impracticable. In 1568 Elizabeth's embarrassments were increased when Mary, Queen of Scots, was deposed by her subjects and compelled to seek refuge in England. Her presence on English soil was a direct encouragement to the formation of Roman Catholic plots, and after a long series of conspiracies of this kind Elizabeth was persuaded by her advisers, very reluctantly, to order the execution of Mary in 1587. There was no real justification for this high-handed action, but it enormously lightened Elizabeth's difficulties.

The new heir to the throne was Mary's son James, who was a Protestant, and Catholics had no longer the same

inducement to plot the removal of Elizabeth. It would merely mean substituting one Protestant for another. The immediate effect of the execution however was to



ENGLISH SHIPS PURSUING THE SPANISH ARMADA

(From an engraving by John P. Clark for the National Geographic Society of London)

provoke Philip II of Spain to attempt single handed the subjection of England. In 1588 as we noted on page 147 the great fleet known as the Spanish Armada sailed for the English coasts but was destroyed. The attempt was never repeated and for the rest of Elizabeth's reign the country was free from the danger of foreign invasion. On the death of the queen in 1603 James VI of Scotland ascended the throne without opposition and took the title of James I.

Further Reading and Reference

C. M. Yonge's *The Armada and its Predecessors* includes Henry VIII and Wolsey amongst its characters. *Daily Life in Tudor Times* by I. L. Plunket is useful for social background.

26.—CHANGE IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

Social Distress and Poor Relief.

The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the age of the Renaissance and the Reformation, saw also the break-up of medieval agriculture. The Black Death in the middle of the fourteenth century had thrown the Manorial System into confusion, from which it never recovered. Leaseholders, copyholders, and freeholders began to take the place of unfree villeins, and, since labourers were demanding wages higher than the lords could pay, the lords sought less expensive methods of using the village lands.

All over the country they began to "enclose" whole tracts of land for the purpose of sheep-farming, which requires far fewer labourers than tillage. Nearly all through the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries this Enclosure Movement went on, until over one-third of the country had ceased to grow corn, and had become pasture-land instead.

This change led naturally to serious unemployment, and by the beginning of the sixteenth century Britain was crowded with unemployed tramps, or "vagabonds" as they were called. Many of these vagabonds would have worked if they could, but some did not want work and were "sturdy beggars," ready to rob and even kill rather than try to obtain a living honestly. Acts were



PLOUGHING AN OVEN FIELD
 ("Boke of Agriculture," 125)

passed to punish the latter by branding them with the letter V and even making slaves of them but these acts did nothing to remove the causes of the distress

At the same time the prices of goods rose steadily until well after the middle of the sixteenth century and this helped to make things worse. These hard conditions naturally led to riots and rebellions. One of these (the *Pilgrimage of Grace* in 1536) was a protest against the destruction of the monasteries which besides being centres of religion had given employment to many workers and had also distributed charity to many poor people. Thirteen years later a more dangerous revolt broke out in Norfolk led by Robert Ket and this was concerned wholly with the hardships of the labouring classes: enclosures, unemployment, low wages and high rents. Both these rebellions were suppressed and their leaders executed. But the government did nothing to ease the grievances of the poorer classes at any rate until after the death of Henry VIII in 1547.

During the early part of the short reign of Edward VI it is true Protector Somerset did take an interest in these problems and tried to do something to solve them but he was overthrown in 1549 and little more was done until the time of Queen Elizabeth. In that reign a number of acts were passed to provide poor relief—that is to help the poor by subscriptions raised in each parish for the purpose. At first those subscriptions were to be voluntary but as the money given was insufficient they were made compulsory and parish overseers were appointed to see that they were paid and collected. Finally the great Poor Law of 1601 re-enacted the chief provisions of these earlier acts and made legal in every parish a Poor Rate which was to be used for relieving the unemployed by

giving them either money or work, and for building "Houses of Correction" (they were later called "work-houses") for those who refused to work.

Sheep-farming and the Woollen Industry.

By this time, however, the problem was beginning to solve itself, for at the end of the sixteenth century unemployment became less prevalent. For one thing, the country was becoming accustomed to the higher prices. In addition, the coinage, which had been seriously "debased" (that is, decreased in value) by Henry VIII., was restored to its proper quality. One could, therefore, obtain more goods, or goods of better quality, for one's money. Moreover, though the land already enclosed remained in use for sheep-farming, very little new enclosure took place after the sixteenth century, so that one of the chief causes of fresh unemployment was removed. And meanwhile a vigorous cloth industry was developing in England, which helped to provide work for peasants who had been driven off the land.

This tendency had been going on all through the sixteenth century, and by 1550 it had considerably eased the country's difficulties. There was even a likelihood that factories would spring up when rich men, such as John Winchcombe



A SHEPHERD PLAYING THE BAGPIPES.
(Jascuy's Edition of Lyndsay, 1548.)

of Newbury gathered large numbers of looms into a single building paid the expenses of working them and took the profits. But this system was checked by various circumstances amongst others by the Weavers' Act (1550) which limited to two the number of looms owned by each weaver.

The factory system did not develop properly until the eighteenth century. But nevertheless, in certain important industries like the woollen industry, the old guild system passed into something different, known as the domestic system. Under the domestic system the cloth worker still worked in his little workshop or in his home (hence the name *domestic system*). But he was no longer completely independent. He now worked on commission for a merchant-employer, who supplied him with his raw material and took it away when it was worked up. The reason for the change was the widening of the market. Cloth was now sent long distances for sale, or it might even be exported abroad. The cloth worker could no longer sell his goods himself. His customers were too far away. Accordingly, the work of selling was now done by a merchant, and the merchant used his position to become in effect the employer of the cloth worker.

This development of the domestic system weakened the *guilds of the Middle Ages* which were unsuited to the new conditions of industry. Craftsmen sought to carry on their work without obeying the strict regulations of the guilds and began to conduct their business outside the town walls, where the guild rules could not be enforced. In this way there grew up new market towns as they were called such as Birmingham and Manchester which had no charter but which before very long, became more important than many of the corporate (or chartered) towns.

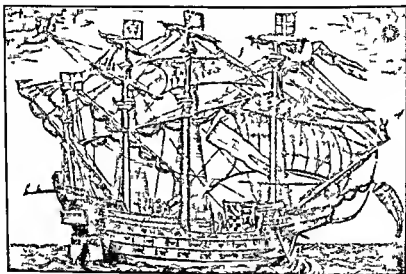
Attempts were made to check these tendencies by law, and at the same time to make things easier for the working people. Chief of the acts passed was the Statute of Artificers, sometimes called the Statute of Apprentices (1563). It fixed the period of apprenticeship at seven years, and refused to allow boys to become apprentices in the more dignified trades unless their parents were sufficiently well-off. It also settled the hours of work—in summer from 5 a.m. until 7 or 8 p.m., with not more than two and a half hours for meals; and in winter from dawn till dusk. Finally, it enacted that wages should be fixed at a satisfactory figure by the local magistrates, who were more likely than government officials to know what was just in their own districts.

Trade and Colonisation.

The Elizabethan period was remarkable for a notable expansion of England's foreign trade, and for the beginnings of English colonisation. All the great sailors of the time—Hawkins, Raleigh, Drake, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and the rest—took part in these developments. Hawkins introduced Englishmen to a new and nefarious trade, invented by the Portuguese—that of selling negroes into slavery in America—which continued until the British Parliament declared it illegal in 1807. Raleigh, Gilbert, and others tried to create new markets for English commerce by founding English settlements overseas. In the seventeenth century others followed their example, and colony after colony was founded by Englishmen. Some were set up largely for purposes of trade (such as Virginia); others (such as New England and Maryland) were refuges for those who, like the Pilgrim Fathers, desired a greater liberty in religion than England had

to offer some, like New York, were conquered from other nations. But however obtained, all these colonies became markets for English goods, leading to a great expansion of English overseas commerce in the seventeenth century.

Another illustration of this tendency is to be seen in the



THE ARK ROYAL —BUILT BY RALEIGH FOR PRIVATE ENTERPRISE
(From a wood cut)

foundation of companies for trading abroad. First of these was the Muscovy Company, which opened up trade with Russia. Soon afterwards came the Turkey Company, for trading with the Eastern Mediterranean, and greatest of all was the East India Company (founded in 1600), which developed to such an extent that it won for Britain not merely the trade of India, but India itself.

All this encouraged the growth of English shipping, and that growth was fostered by the commercial policy of

sixteenth century monarchs, who passed a series of acts to compel English merchants to do their importing and exporting in English ships. The first of these "Navigation Acts" was passed in 1381, but most of them were the work of the Tudors. Henry VII. regulated our trade with Gascony and the Netherlands, while Elizabeth, on the advice of her great minister Burghley, passed acts which encouraged both English shipping and English fishing, so that neither naval nor merchant ships, nor sailors to man them, should ever be lacking.

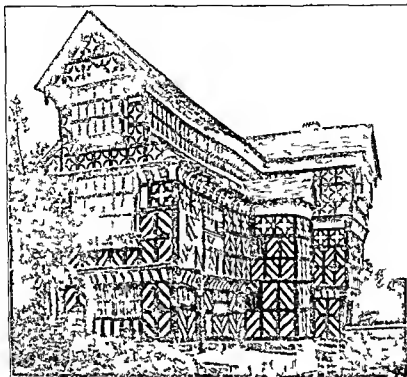
See *English Seamen in the Sixteenth Century* (J. A. Froude)

27.—ELIZABETHAN ENGLAND.

By the end of the sixteenth century the Middle Ages had definitely passed away. The age of custom was gone; the age of enterprise and ceaseless activity was taking its place. So energetic were the Elizabethans, and in so many directions, that Tennyson called the age "the spacious times of great Elizabeth."

"Spacious" it was, as we have seen, in the sense that its trade and shipping now began to cover all parts of the globe. It was "spacious," too, in another way, for even those Englishmen who did not travel to foreign parts took an interest in them, and in all sorts of other things as well—not only in travel and exploration, but in architecture, music, and other arts; and about all of these things they wrote books.

In architecture the Elizabethan age is famous for its splendid buildings—especially for the building of magnificent houses, which were almost palaces, and which can still be seen in many parts of the country. It is famous, too, for its music; songs, dances, church services—music of



AN ELIZABETHAN MANSION—MORETON OLD HALL CHESHIRE
(By permission of Country Life)

all sorts, composed by men like John Bull, John Dowland, Orlando Gibbons, Thomas Morley, Thomas Weelkes, and others.

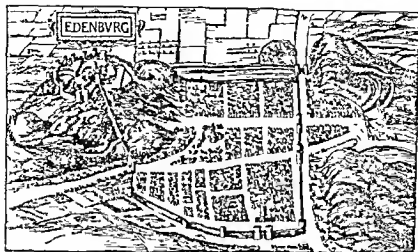
Elizabethan Literature

But the greatest glory of the Elizabethan age is its literature. The Renaissance had opened men's eyes to the wonder of life, and the Elizabethans were themselves so full of life that they could not help writing about it. At first their best books were only untrue romances, something like those which were fashionable in the Middle Ages. The greatest of these Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, was

great poetry as well, and it is still one of the greatest poems in the English language. There were other famous romances (such as Sir Philip Sidney's *Arcadia* and Lyly's *Euphues*, in prose), but they soon made way for writings about real life.

Marlowe, the first great English dramatist, wrote plays chiefly about people famous in history—like *Tamburlaine*, *Edicard II.*, and *Doctor Faustus*, though the story of the latter is only a fable. Marlowe also made “blank verse” fashionable—that unrhymed verse in which many of the greatest of English poems are written. Shakespeare himself followed Marlowe in the use of blank verse, and he followed him also in choosing historical subjects. Shakespeare wrote twelve historical plays, but he also wrote others about the people and the life of his own time; and his characters are so real that they still live, and his plays are still read and performed after more than three hundred years. Indeed, this was the greatest age of the English drama, and many other dramatists were busy writing plays at the same time as Shakespeare. Chief of them were Ben Jonson and Beaumont and Fletcher.

While these men were writing poetry, others were writing in prose. Sir Francis Bacon, for example, wrote a *History of the Reign of Henry VII.*, books of philosophy and science, and many Essays. The greatest prose work of the Elizabethan age, however (though not published till 1611, after Elizabeth's death), is one with which we are all familiar. This was the English translation of the Bible. It was the work, not of one man, but of many scholars, for in the spacious times of great Elizabeth most educated men could write well, and the clear, vigorous prose of the English Bible has never been surpassed.



PLAN OF EDINBURGH IN THE LATTER HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY
(From "*Civitates Orbis Terrarum*", Braun and Hogenberg, published in 1592.)

23.—SCOTLAND BEFORE THE UNION OF THE CROWNS.

Until the year 1603, when James VI. of Scotland became also James I. of England, Englishmen and Scots regarded each other as foreigners. Even after this date the feeling continued, and it was not until after 1707, when the two countries were united under one Parliament, that feelings of hostility finally died out. During the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries England and Scotland were constantly at war, and at the time of the Hundred Years' War with France, Scotland was nearly always on the side of the French.

Mary, Queen of Scots.

In 1547 the king of England was Edward VI., a boy of nine. To the English it seemed a fitting time to unite the kingdoms of England and Scotland by marrying the

young king to the young queen, Mary, who had succeeded to the throne of her father, James V, in 1542. The Scots, however would have none of this, and Mary was sent by her mother (herself a French princess) to France for safety. There she was later married to the French prince who became King Francis II of France.

Thus Queen Mary had a double connection with the French. Her mother was French, and now her husband was a Frenchman. It appeared as though the old French alliance was safer than ever. This, however, was far from being the case. Protestantism was growing in Scotland, and this tended to draw the Scots away from the French, who adhered to the Roman Catholic faith, and nearer to the English, the majority of whom had accepted the Reformation.

While Mary was in France her mother died, and the Scottish nobles thought this a good opportunity for once more acquiring power. A number of them banded themselves together into a Protestant league, calling themselves the "Lords of the Congregation, and working hand in hand with John Knox the great Protestant leader in Scotland. Thus as Protestants and as feudal barons the nobles were doubly opposed to their monarch, and when Mary returned to her own country in 1561 civil war soon followed. In this war the alliance of the Scots with France received its death blow. The Protestant nobles were ultimately victorious, and Mary had to seek refuge in England where, as we have seen, she was afterwards executed. In 1567 her infant son was proclaimed king as James VI.

The Life and Work of the People of England—the Sixteenth Century by D. Hartley and M. Elliot, contains contemporary pictures

Time-Chart (Middle Ages to Union).

(For Revision and Reference.)

DATE.	BRITISH—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL.	FOREIGN.
About end of 15th century.	Enclosure of common fields. <i>Distress of farm labourers.</i> Growth of wool industry. Beginning of the navy. Scholastic Foundations.	Columbus discovers America, 1492. Vasco da Gama reaches India, 1497-98.
1500		
1510	The New Learning. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Marriage of Margaret Tudor to James IV, of Scotland, 1502. St. Paul's School founded by Colet, 1512. Battle of Flodden, 1513. Wolsey, Archbishop, 1514. 	Erasmus's Greek Testament, 1516. Luther begins Reformation, 1517. Magellan sails round world, 1519-22.
1520		Luther's translation of New Testament, 1522.
1530	The Reformation in England. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Translation of Bible by Tyndale and Coverdale, 1525-35. Death of Wolsey, 1530. Henry VIII. head of Church in England, 1531. Act of Annates, 1533. Final separation from Rome, 1534. Closing of the monasteries, 1536-40. Act of Six Articles, 1539. Death of Henry VIII., 1547. 	
1540		
1550		

PART IV.—THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENTARY POWER.

29.—ENGLAND UNDER THE STEWARTS.

The great changes which had come over Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries tended to make everybody more independent and less obedient to authority. The Renaissance was a revolt against the old scholastic learning of the Middle Ages, the Reformation was a movement against authority in religion. Similarly, work-people wished to be independent of the towns and the guilds, and merchants wished to be freed from restrictions on trade.

In the same way, governments everywhere were finding that their peoples wanted to be more independent of control. This was especially the case in England. The chief movement in English history in the seventeenth century is the struggle of the people, as represented in parliament, to be more independent of the government of their kings.

The First Two Stewarts, 1603-49.

There were signs of the coming struggle even before Elizabeth died. But, like all the Tudors, Elizabeth was very tactful, and always took care not to irritate her parliaments too much. The Stewarts, on the other hand, were as tactless as kings could be. The first of them, James I., was no sooner seated on his English throne (until 1603 he was king of Scotland only) than he began to make himself unpopular. He offended the Presbyterians of Scotland by compelling them to have bishops whom they hated; he disgusted the English by making favourites

Time-Chart (Middle Ages to Union).

(For Revision and Reference)

DATE	BRITISH—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL	FOREIGN
1550	Elizabeth, Queen 1558	
1560	Knox starts up Scottish Reformers, 1559	
	Statute of Apprentices, 1563	French Religious Wars, 1562-98
	Thirty nine Articles, 1563	
	Birth of Shakespeare, 1564	Galileo, 1564-1642
1570	Poor Rate	
	Houses of Correction, 1572	Massacre of St Bartholomew, 1572
	Drake sails round the world, 1577-80	Dutch Revolt against Spain, 1572-1609
1580	Severe laws against Roman Catholics, 1581 (Craftsmen from Flanders and France take refuge in England throughout the reign)	Protestant Dutch Republic, 1579
	Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, 1587	Philip of Spain becomes ruler of Portugal, 1580
	Spanish Armada, 1588	
1590	Shakespeare's first play — "Love's Labour's Lost," 1591	
	Rebellion in Ireland, 1593-1603	
1600	East India Company founded, 1600	
	Poor Law, 1601	
	Death of Elizabeth and Union of Crowns, 1603	

PART IV.—THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENTARY POWER.

29.—ENGLAND UNDER THE STEWARTS.

The great changes which had come over Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries tended to make everybody more independent and less obedient to authority. The Renaissance was a revolt against the old scholastic learning of the Middle Ages, the Reformation was a movement against authority in religion. Similarly, work-people wished to be independent of the towns and the guilds, and merchants wished to be freed from restrictions on trade.

In the same way, governments everywhere were finding that their peoples wanted to be more independent of control. This was especially the case in England. The chief movement in English history in the seventeenth century is the struggle of the people, as represented in parliament, to be more independent of the government of their kings.

The First Two Stewarts, 1603-49.

There were signs of the coming struggle even before Elizabeth died. But, like all the Tudors, Elizabeth was very tactful, and always took care not to irritate her parliaments too much. The Stewarts, on the other hand, were as tactless as kings could be. The first of them, James I., was no sooner seated on his English throne (until 1603 he was king of Scotland only) than he began to make himself unpopular. He offended the Presbyterians of Scotland by compelling them to have bishops whom they hated; he disgusted the English by making favourites

of unworthy courtiers such as George Villiers who was later made Duke of Buckingham and he imitated his punishments in all sorts of ways

In the first place he declared his belief in the Divine Right of Kings—that is the belief that kings were the agents of God and could therefore do no wrong. Yet he was always doing foolish things himself and he was constantly so badly in need of money that he had to ask parliament for more. Parliament however would not grant him more supplies unless he undertook to rule better. One of his parliaments (in 1614) refused to pass any laws at all because he would not redress their grievances. It is therefore known as the Adull'd Parliament.

In the later years of the reign parliament became bolder. In 1621 it impeached several of the king's favourites, including the Lord Chancellor, Francis Bacon and in 1624 it passed an act restricting monopolies which were a source of revenue to the king.

In 1626 when Charles I came to the throne parliament resolved to run no risks and decided to limit the king's income. For over two hundred years every monarch had been granted an income for life from taxes on imports and exports which were known as Tonnage and Poundage. But the first parliament of Charles I wished to grant him Tonnage and Poundage for one year only. Nevertheless the king went on collecting the taxes. Many of his subjects refused to pay. By other means he tried to raise a revenue. For example he endeavoured to compel people to find lodgings (sometimes without payment) for his soldiers. he exacted unjust fines and so on.

Even now Charles had not sufficient money to carry on the government and he had to call parliament again in 1628. It was this parliament which passed the famous

declaration known as the Petition of Right, with its four clauses:—

- (i) That the king should collect no taxes without the consent of parliament.
- (ii) That no one should be imprisoned by the king without a good reason and a quick trial.
- (iii) That the king should not rule by military (or martial) law, but should try people in the ordinary law-courts.
- (iv) That there should be no more compulsory billeting of soldiers in the houses of private persons.

After long hesitation Charles undertook to make these four promises, but as soon as parliament was dissolved he went on much as before, and for eleven years (1629–40) ruled without calling a parliament at all.

During these eleven years his chief advisers were the Earl of Strafford and William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud persuaded him to increase the number of ceremonies in the Church, and generally to make it seem more Roman Catholic and less Protestant. This annoyed the Puritans, as the extreme Protestants were called, and turned them against the king. Strafford advised Charles to make himself a despot, and during these years he levied taxes to which he had no right; he governed the country by martial law, and behaved despotically in other ways.

This could not go on indefinitely, and by 1640 the king was almost penniless, so that parliament had to be summoned and asked for more money. It refused, and was dissolved. This parliament was known as the Short Parliament; but six months later another had to be called, and this the king was never able to dissolve, so

that it is known as the Long Parliament (1640-53). It was this parliament which determined to put an end to the king's despotism. It condemned Strafford and Laud to death in 1641. In the following year king and parliament engaged in open war.



ROUNDHEAD AND CAVALIER
(Drawn by George Brooker)

The Civil War, 1642-49

In this war the country was throughout very evenly divided. Roughly speaking the south east of England, including London sided with parliament and the north west with the king. The king's supporters included most of the members of the Church of England and the Roman Catholics whereas the Presbyterians the Independents (who refused to belong to any Church except their own congregation) and other Puritan nonconformists were for parliament. The king could rely upon the military skill and the money of the lords and greater landowners but parliament was backed by the wealth of most of the

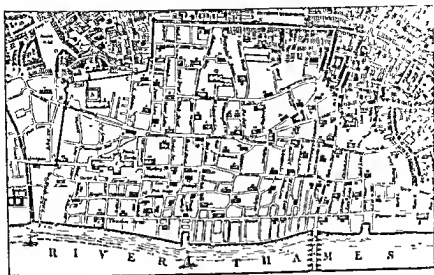
well as the power. Although he refused to do this, he governed England as despotically as Charles had done, even to the extent of ruling by martial law. He divided the country into eleven districts each under the military control of a major general. Like Charles, he quarrelled with parliament, levied taxes without its consent, and ruled without it.

There however, the resemblance ceased. For whereas Charles ruled badly, Cromwell was very strong and efficient. At home he governed England well, and abroad he made her one of the most important nations in Europe. France and Spain sought her alliance, and Cromwell granted it to France, who in return helped him to keep the Stewarts from regaining the crown. Before this, in 1655 Jamaica was captured from the Spaniards and became a British possession. But when Cromwell died in 1658 there was no one strong enough to take his place and in 1660 the Restoration of Charles II to his throne brought back the Stewarts.

England from Restoration to Revolution, 1660-88

Charles II was the most tactful and least conscientious of the Stewarts. Above all things, he was determined, as he said, not to go on his travels again, and so he avoided all conduct which might tempt his subjects to send him back into exile. He could see when he was going too far, and he always drew back rather than quarrel desperately with his parliaments. Consequently, although he did many things to annoy the English, he reigned for twenty-five years (1660-85) without very serious trouble.

When however, Charles II's brother, James II, came to the throne, he was so tactless that he soon found himself being blamed for Charles's misdeeds as well as his own.



Part of an old plan of London showing the effects of the Great Fire of 1666
Part in white represents area destroyed.

(From an engraving by Bowen of about 1770, from Maitland's "London.")

James II. was a Roman Catholic, and the English people were afraid that he might attempt to restore the Roman religion. When, therefore, the king appointed his co-religionists to high offices in Church and state, and ordered "Declarations of Indulgence" to be read in the churches, granting freedom of worship to all, including Roman Catholics, the people turned against him.

At first they were willing to wait for his death, for he had no son, and he would be succeeded by his eldest daughter Mary, who was a Protestant. But in 1688 a son was born to James, and the nation realised that it was no longer safe to wait, since this son would be brought up as a Roman Catholic. Prominent men made arrangements with William, Prince of Orange, Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, who was the husband of James's daughter Mary, to invade England and expel

James from the throne. This was done in the autumn of 1688 and William and Mary became joint monarchs.

The Revolution

This expulsion of the last of the Stuart kings is known as the Revolution and it was a revolution in more senses than one. William and Mary were allowed to reign only on condition that they promised not to repeat the misdoings of the Stuart kings. Before receiving the crown they were compelled to sign a

Declaration of Rights, which, after their accession was converted into a Bill of Rights, passed by both houses of parliament and signed by both king and queen.

This Bill of Rights is one of the chief statutes in English law since it limits the power of the monarch in many ways. It makes it definitely illegal for a king to levy taxes without the consent of parliament or to keep a standing army in time of peace, or to interfere with parliament, or attempt to do without it. In the same year the Toleration Act gave freedom of worship to all but Roman Catholics, and thus one of the chief causes of dispute among Englishmen in the seventeenth century was removed.

Since 1689 parliament has always had more power than the king. The struggle between king and parliament, which had lasted nearly all through the century, was at last won by the latter. It took many years for the government to settle down to this new situation, and it was not until the middle of the eighteenth century that parliamentary government began to work smoothly. But it was the changes effected in 1689 which made England a parliamentary country instead of an absolute monarchy, and therefore these changes well deserve the name of Revolution.

The English Revolution of 1688-89.

(From Macaulay's *History of England*, Chapter X.
Published in 1848.)

"And yet this Revolution, of all revolutions the least violent, has been of all revolutions the most beneficent. It finally decided the great question whether the popular element should be destroyed by the monarchical element, or should be suffered to develop itself freely and to become dominant. The strife between the two principles had been long, fierce, and doubtful. It had lasted through four reigns. It had produced seditions, impeachments, rebellions, battles, sieges, proscriptions, judicial massacres. Sometimes liberty, sometimes royalty, had seemed to be on the point of perishing. During many years one half of the energy of England had been employed in counteracting the other half. The executive power and the legislative power had so effectually impeded each other that the state had been of no account in Europe.

"The King at Arms, who proclaimed William and Mary before Whitehall Gate, did in truth announce that this struggle was over; that there was entire union between the throne and the parliament; that the executive administration would be conducted in conformity with the sense of the representatives of the nation; and that no reform, which the two Houses should propose, would be obstinately withstood by the sovereign. The Declaration of Right, though it made nothing law which had not been law before, contained the germ of the law which gave religious freedom to the Dissenter, of the law which secured the independence of the Judges, of the law which limited the duration of parliaments, of

the law which placed the liberty of the press under the protection of juries, of the law which prohibited the slave trade, of the law which abolished the sacramental test, of the law which relieved the Roman Catholics from civil disabilities, of the law which reformed the representative system, of every good law which has been passed during more than a century and a half, of every good law which may hereafter, in the course of ages, be found necessary to promote the public weal, and to satisfy the demands of public opinion.

30—SOCIAL LIFE IN STEWART ENGLAND.

The Renaissance, as we have seen, made men fonder of the pleasures of life than they had been in the Middle Ages. This love of pleasure led, in the great towns and particularly in London, to the development of the English drama, the building of theatres, and to the reading of poetry, which at that time was always closely associated with the drama. But there were few great towns in England, and in the villages or smaller towns a theatre was not possible.

Games

Consequently, people depended for their amusement chiefly upon games, and it was perhaps in this period that the name of "Merrie England" was most appropriate. Games of all sorts were played whenever the people felt in the mood. On Sundays they played as much as on any other day, for until the Puritans became powerful in the middle of the seventeenth century holy days were still, as they had been in the Middle Ages, holidays. As Puritanism progressed, it is true, Sunday games began to be condemned; but the king himself, and most of the

members of the Church of England, approved of games on Sundays, and in 1618 James sanctioned them in the proclamation known as *The Book of Sports*. From the *Book of Sports* we learn a good deal about the games which were popular in the seventeenth century.

"As for our good people's lawful recreation," it says, "our pleasure likewise is, that after the end of divine service our good people be not disturbed, letted, or discouraged from any lawful recreation, such as dancing, either men or women; archery for men, leaping, vaulting, or any other such harmless recreation, nor from having of May-games, Whitsun-ales, and Morris-dances; and the setting up of Maypoles and other sports therewith used: so as the same be had in due and convenient time, without impediment or neglect of divine service: and that women shall have leave to carry rushes to the church for the decorating of it, according to their old custom; but withal we do here account still as prohibited all unlawful games to be used upon Sundays only, as bear- and bull-baitings, interludes, and at all times in the meaner sort of people as by law prohibited, bowling."

In the winter time, in particular, life in Stewart England would have been unbearable without such recreations. It was then that football was most played, for after the pigs had been killed in the autumn there were plenty of bladders to use for balls. Nevertheless, football was always regarded by the authorities as a game to be discouraged on account of its roughness. In the seventeenth century it was usually played in the streets, without any goals, or touchlines, or rules of any

sort as is still done in many English and Scottish villages on Shrove Tuesday or Eastern Eve

The most severe part of winter when the days were too short and the weather too bad for work in the fields was almost wholly given up to merry making. This was the twelve days of Christmas from December 26th to January 6th. The latter date was Twelfth Day and is the last of the holy days it usually finished up with special merriment. For this reason one of Shakespeare's plays which is most suitable for performance at this time of the year is called Twelfth Night.

Among the poorer classes both games and plays were but roughly organised. Among the aristocracy, however, one of the most fashionable forms of amusement both in summer and in winter was the Masque — a sort of elaborate charade on which large sums of money were sometimes spent. Like the ordinary drama, the masque dropped out of fashion when the Puritans were in power but all the Puritans were not against it, for one of the best known poems of the Puritan poet Milton is his masque *Comus*. This was performed at Ludlow Castle in 1634 to music composed by Henry Lawes, one of the greatest musicians of the day. Moreover, it was not only great musicians who were willing to devote themselves to the improvement of the masque. In his younger days Inigo Jones the greatest of English architects before Sir Christopher Wren made his name by designing artistic scenery for this type of entertainment.

Literature of the Period

Under the influence of the Puritans not only amusements but literature became more serious. Milton himself turned from the light poetry of his youth to write serious

religious poems such as *Paradise Lost*; while the best-known prose book of the time is Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, a religious allegory. As regards dramatic writing, after the Restoration of Charles II. plays became lighter and more humorous, and were nearly always in prose instead of poetry. Non-dramatic prose included such works as Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, and later on the pleasant and easily-read essays of writers like Joseph Addison and Richard Steele.

Most of the essays of these two men first appeared in *The Spectator*, a kind of daily magazine which they founded in the year 1711. Even at that time there were hardly any newspapers like ours. (In the early part of the seventeenth century there were none at all.) One or two men (for example, Roger Lestrangle) tried to print journals which in many respects resembled the modern newspaper, but the most frequent way of spreading news was by "news-letters," which were usually written by men in London and passed on to subscribers in the country.

Communications.

Even then news spread very slowly, since the quickest means of circulating it was by mounted messengers. For example, it took three days for the news of Queen Elizabeth's death to reach King James VI. of Scotland in Edinburgh, and even this was thought exceedingly quick.



A POST BOY IN THE MIDDLE OF
THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
(From a woodcut in the "London Post")

In fact one of the chief differences between England then and now was the poorness of communications of all sorts. Roads were abominable—often, in wet weather, impassable—and there were none of our most usual means of news-communication—the post, telephone, and telegraph.

Seventeenth Century Country Life

In these circumstances the country villages had to be, as they had been in the Middle Ages, self-sufficing; that

is, they had to produce nearly everything needed by the inhabitants. Villages were scattered, and the country between them was not, as now, occupied by tilled fields, but was uncultivated, much of the land being unused waste. Visits from outsiders were rare, and the occasional arrival of a pedlar, selling the goods which the villagers could not make, was a time of real excitement. Another occasional visitor was the agent of a cloth manufacturer in some neighbouring town



A PEDLAR.
(from a wood-cut)

who brought the yarn for the men and their wives to weave on their domestic looms, or superior cloth for them to make into clothes.

By the seventeenth century the class distinctions of the Middle Ages had almost entirely disappeared, and in the country men were generally either "gentlemen," "yeomen," small farmers, or labourers working for other people at a fixed wage. Of these the small farmer was usually the worst off, for he rarely made more than a bare living. The labourers were not badly paid on

the whole, for although their wages varied somewhere between four shillings and six shillings¹ a week, this was usually in addition to their board and lodging, and they received all sorts of extra allowances in the way of vegetables and other food from their masters.

Probably the happiest of all classes at this time were the yeomen. They owned their land, lived in comfortable houses with good farm buildings attached, and usually made far more money than they could spend. If a yeoman had an income of at least forty shillings a year derived from land he was qualified to exercise the vote at elections of county members of parliament, but as a matter of fact, most yeomen earned something like sixty or seventy pounds a year, which was quite enough to live on in comfort.

It is estimated that the yeoman class amounted to about one seventh of the whole population in Stewart times, so that the land was divided among a larger proportion of the people then than now. The change to the modern system was brought about mainly in the eighteenth century as a result of the Agricultural Revolution, about which we shall read in a later chapter.

Higher in the social scale than the yeomen were the "gentry," who included not only the nobles, but also a great number of country squires. These men were for the most part very uneducated, and very coarse in their manners. Even if they had been to college in their young days they soon, as a rule, forgot all they had learnt, and lived the life of an ordinary farmer at that time, reading little, studying nothing, interested only in cattle and agriculture, and visiting a town very rarely, indeed seldom going farther than the neighbouring market.

¹ Worth much more then than now.

Yet these country gentry, rough and unlettered as they would appear to us, played a great and important part in the life of Stewart England. In their own villages they were most powerful, regulating the lives of the villagers almost like little kings, and regarded with awe by their people. Among other things, theirs was the duty of fixing the price of corn, the rate of wages, and enforcing the Poor Laws. And their visits to the neighbouring town were not unimportant. Each country gentleman was usually a magistrate, trying and punishing the villagers when they broke the law. Twice or three times a year they went to the "Assizes" at the county town, where they saw the king's judges at their work and learned to copy them, heard the opinions of the judge about their duties as patriotic Englishmen, and exchanged ideas with other squires on the methods of making the villagers both patriotic and well behaved.

An Old time Squire—Sir Roger de Coverley

(The following is an extract from *The Spectator*, a magazine written mainly by Steele and Addison early in the eighteenth century. It describes a typical—though imaginary—squire at the time of which we are reading. The essay is by Addison.)

"The first of our society is a gentleman of Worcester-shire, of an ancient descent, a baronet, his name Sir Roger de Coverley. All who know that shire are very well acquainted with the parts and merits of Sir Roger. He is a gentleman that is very singular in his behaviour, but his singularities proceed from his good sense, and are contradictions to the manners of the world only as he thinks the world is in the wrong. When he is in

town he lives in Soho Square. He is now in his fifty-sixth year, cheerful, gay, and hearty; keeps a good house both in town and country; a great lover of mankind; but there is such a mirthful cast in his behaviour that he is rather beloved than esteemed.

"His tenants grow rich, his servants look satisfied, all the young women profess to love him, and the young men are glad of his company. When he comes into a house he calls the servants by their names, and talks all the way upstairs to a visit. I must not omit that Sir Roger is a justice of the quorum; that he fills the chair at a quarter-session with great abilities, and three months ago gained universal applause by explaining a passage in the game act.

"My friend Sir Roger, being a good churchman, has beautified the inside of his church with several texts of his own choosing; he has likewise given a handsome pulpit-cloth, and railed in the communion table at his own expense. As Sir Roger is landlord to the whole congregation, he keeps them in very good order, and will suffer nobody to sleep in it besides himself; for if by chance he has been surprised into a short nap at sermon, upon recovering out of it he stands up and looks about him, and if he sees anybody else nodding, either wakes them himself or sends his servants to them.

"As soon as the sermon is finished nobody presumes to stir till Sir Roger is gone out of the church. The knight walks down from his seat in the chancel between a double row of his tenants that stand bowing to him on each side, and every now and then inquires how such an one's wife, or mother, or son, or father do whom he does not see at church, which is understood as a secret reprimand to the person that is absent."

Seventeenth Century Town Life.

Sir Roger de Coverley had a house in London, but he spent very little of his time there, and when he was in London he was quite out of his element, and his experience of his own county town was no help to him in the capital. In the seventeenth century even the chief town of a county was usually little more than



COFFEE HOUSE GOSSIP (From a satirical print of 1753.)

its provision for amusement of all sorts. Not only were there the "sights" to see—important buildings, important people, and streets which to the men of those days seemed crowded—but London in the seventeenth century, as in the twentieth, had more theatres than any other town. Then, as now, the best "clubs" were there, though in the seventeenth century they were called "coffee-houses." These, as their name implies, were somewhat after the style of modern cafés. There men gathered to eat and drink, and to talk to others whose mode of life was rather similar to their own. Each of the best-known coffee-houses had its own class of customer: "Will's" coffee-house was patronised by literary men, and among them, Addison, "Child's" mainly by the clergy, "Saint James's" by the Whigs, the "Cocoa-Tree" by the Tories, the "Grecian" by lawyers, and "Jonathan's" by financiers.

the audience and admiration of his neighbours from six till within a quarter of eight at which time he is interrupted by the students, who rise early for no other purpose but to publish their own laziness. When the day grows too busy for these gentlemen they give place to men who have business or good sense in their faces, and come to the coffee house either to transact affairs or enjoy conversation. The coffee house is the place of rendezvous to all that live near it. Eubulus presides over the middle hours of the day, when this assembly of men meet together. His wisdom and knowledge are serviceable to all that think fit to make use of them, and he does the office of a counsel, a judge, an executor, and a friend to all his acquaintance. Eubulus has so great an authority in his little diurnal audience that when he shakes his head at any piece of public news they all of them appear dejected, and on the contrary go home to their dinners with a good stomach and cheerful aspect when Eubulus seems to intimate that things go well.

"Having here given an account of the several reigns that succeed each other from daybreak till dinner-time, I shall mention the monarchs of the afternoon on another occasion, and shut up the whole series of them with the history of Tom the Tyrant, who, as the first minister of the coffee house, takes the government upon him between the hours of eleven and twelve at night, and gives his orders in the most arbitrary manner to the servants below him as to the disposition of liquors, coal, and candles.

Industries of the Towns

Below the surface gaiety of the metropolis there was

going on a life of steady work. "Steady" work it was—slow and sure, and not hurried and scamped. True, there was more competition than there had been in the days of the guilds, but the bulk of the work of the towns was still being done in workshops which were ordinary shops and houses as well. There were no factories such as we have to-day. The master of each shop employed "journeymen" and apprentices as in the later Middle Ages, and all worked together, each performing various operations (instead of having separate specialised tasks, as in a modern factory). Very often the journeymen—and nearly always the apprentices—lived at the house of their master. The relations of master and man were closer and perhaps friendlier than they can be to-day, and there was a good chance for every man to become a master in his turn.

Already a few towns were becoming known for special kinds of manufactures. Sheffield was noted for steel, because the stone of the hills on which it is built is most suitable for grinding; Birmingham for iron goods, because it lay in a district full of iron and timber (in those days wood, and not coal, was mainly used for smelting iron); Manchester for cotton goods, because its damp climate made spinning easy. But even these towns, like all the others, made for themselves nearly everything they needed. The roads were so bad, and communications so slow, that the towns as well as the villages needed to be self-sufficing. And most of them were still almost as much concerned with farming as with manufacture.

Town Sanitation.

The streets, too, were still much as they had been for ages. Most of the shops and houses were built of wood,

wholly or in part and the narrow streets were narrower still at the level of the upper storeys which overhung the street itself. Drainage (which is one of the chief problems of any town) was still very primitive. There were no sewers and no sewage farms. Rubbish was pitched anywhere to find its way eventually to the nearest stream so that very often the drinking supply of the towns was dangerously polluted.

In the circumstances towns in the seventeenth century suffered from many ills that are practically unknown in our own time. Diseases like smallpox and cholera which are now nearly or quite stamped out in our country broke out frequently and outbreaks of fire among the wooden buildings were very common. The most deadly disease of all was the Plague which recurred regularly and of which the worst epidemic was the Black Death of 1348 to 1350. In London the last severe outbreak of the Plague was in 1665 and it was followed in the next year by the last great fire which destroyed most of the city with eighty nine of its churches including St. Paul's Cathedral.

But this fire did at least as much good as harm, since it destroyed also most of the old unhealthy buildings which were erected in a more sanitary manner. It also gave a great opportunity to England's most famous architect Sir Christopher Wren who built the present St. Paul's and about fifty of the present churches of London. If it had not been for the obstinacy of tradesmen who refused to remove their shops to a different district he would have rebuilt the whole of London on a scientific plan with wide streets and long views like a modern American city.



THE OLD EAST INDIA WHARF, LONDON BRIDGE

(From a picture by Peter Monamy (1670-1742) in the Victoria and Albert Museum.)

31.—TRADE AND COLONISATION IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Overseas Trade.

During this period trade was governed by a system of regulations known as the "Mercantile System." This system was part of the development which was making English trade less local and more national or international. Since the later Middle Ages, English kings had endeavoured to encourage English trade, and one result of their care was the Navigation Acts, which sought to keep English commerce in the hands of English shippers. The greatest of the Navigation Acts for this

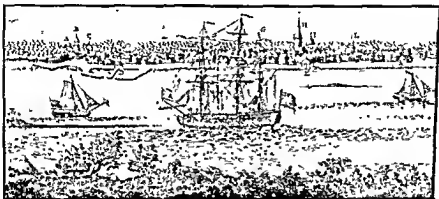
purpose was passed in 1651, under the Commonwealth, but it was too good to lose when the Stewarts returned, and it was renewed in 1660.

Thus it can be seen that in the reign of the careless Charles II English trade was not neglected, and serious kings like James I. had been more anxious still that it should grow rapidly. James himself had offended his people by granting "monopolies" (that is, the sole right of selling a certain commodity) to his favourites. But although in 1624 monopolies were restricted, other methods of fostering trade became more and more popular. Colonies were founded—and every colony was a new market for English goods. The mercantile system, with its doctrine that the country would best increase its wealth by exporting more goods than it imported, was soon accepted by almost everybody. One of the most celebrated books written to make this system popular was Thomas Mun's *England's Treasure by Foreign Trade*, which was published after his death in 1661. Even the struggle of king and parliament did some good to the trading movement, for it encouraged many to try their fortunes abroad at a time when life in England was less attractive than it had been for many generations. All through the century we have seen the result of this emigrating movement in the foundation of colonies, and of companies to trade with lands where there were no colonies.

Colonies.

Colonies which were captured also formed possible openings for trade—especially Jamaica, taken in 1655 from the Spaniards (though this seemed useless for trade for many years), and New York, which was taken

from the Dutch in 1665. All through the seventeenth century the Dutch were our commercial rivals, at first in the East Indies—the islands of the Malay Archipelago. In 1623 there had been a massacre of English merchants by Dutch rivals at Amboina (in the East Indies). Later, this rivalry spread elsewhere, and if Holland had not



A VIEW OF NEW YORK IN 1746.
(From a print by Harris)

been so fully occupied in the later part of the century with her wars with France it is possible that she, and not England, would have become the greatest trading nation in the eighteenth century.

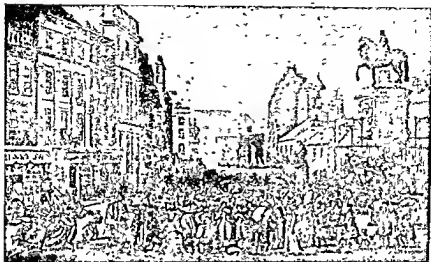
As it was. England was comparatively free from wars between the Restoration and the Revolution, and our trade, therefore, had every opportunity to grow. The great trading companies flourished, and new trading schemes were constantly being proposed. Two of the latest and most prosperous of the new trading bodies were the Hudson's Bay Company, founded in 1670 to trade in North America, and the South Sea Company, founded in 1711 to trade with the countries of the southern Pacific.

The National Debt and the Bank of England.

In 1693 in order to find money for the war which had begun with France the National Debt was started. A large number of wealthy men lent money to the government at a higher rate of interest than was usual, the condition being that the government need never pay them back unless it wished. In 1694 these subscribers were allowed to form themselves into a bank under the special patronage of the government, so that they called themselves the Bank of England.

Now, by the year 1720 the South Sea Company had done so well that, in return for further concessions, it offered to take over the whole of the National Debt. The interest paid to the Bank of England by the government was at the rate of about seven or eight per cent instead of the usual four per cent. The South Sea Company proposed that it should lend the money instead of the Bank, at five per cent; the shareholders in the Bank were to be repaid by having shares in the very prosperous company, while the company also promised to pay to the government £7,500,000.

Even after this the company did so well that all sorts of other undertakings were started in the hope of making money at the same rate. Some of these new companies were mere frauds, intended to persuade people to lend their money, and were unlikely to bring in anything in return. Thus when subscribers in various companies found they were being cheated they lost confidence even in sound undertakings like the South Sea Company. The South Sea Company could not hope to escape in the panic. Widespread ruin was caused and the whole tangle was not put right until Sir Robert Walpole became



A STREET SCENE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Rogues in the Pillory, at Charing Cross, London

(From a print by Roulandson)

minister in 1721. Once more the Bank of England took over the National Debt, and it is still the only bank directly concerned with it.

The crisis of the "South Sea Bubble," as it is called, illustrates the foolishness with which men were willing to embark upon trading schemes in those days of expanding commerce. Another scheme which suffered disaster was the Darien Scheme, and this time it was the Scots who were unfortunate. "Darien" was the old name for the Isthmus of Panama, and a Darien Company was founded in 1695 to colonise and trade with that country. The English king and government, however, fearing to offend Spain, which owned most of America, refused to assist the scheme, and as the colonists were constantly harassed by the Spaniards it soon failed, and again much money was lost.

The Scottish Union

The failure of the Darien Scheme increased still further the exasperation of the Scots against the English which had been steadily growing since the Massacre of Glencoe in January 1692. This ill feeling had been fostered by the English navigation and trading ordinances which had seriously hampered Scottish commerce. The bitterness at length reached such a height that the Scots thought seriously of breaking away from England altogether. In 1703 they went so far as to pass, in their Parliament at Edinburgh, a 'Security Act' which made provision for Scotland's appointing a monarch of its own when Queen Anne died. The danger to England was so great that special steps were taken to avoid it if possible. Scottish and English Commissioners met together to discover a way out of the difficulty, and as a result Scotland and England were united in 1707 by having not only one monarch, as they had had since the accession of James I in 1603 but also one parliament. Since then, although Scotland has had a separate Church and separate law courts, the two countries have been united as Great Britain, and Scots as well as English have sent representatives to the Parliament at Westminster.



AN EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURY COACH
(From a engraving by A. P.)

Time-Chart.

The Seventeenth Century.

199

DATE.	BRITISH HISTORY.	FOREIGN HISTORY.
	James I. King of England and Scotland, 1603.	
	Virginia founded, 1607.	
1610	Authorised Version of Bible, 1611.	Quebec founded by Champlain, 1608.
1620	Pilgrim Fathers founded New England, 1620.	
	Harvey, Circulation of the Blood, 1628.	
1630	Petition of Right, 1628.	
	National Covenant, 1638.	
1640	Grand Remonstrance, 1641.	
	Newton, 1642-1727.	
	Civil War, 1642-49.	
	Charles I. executed, 1649	
	Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649-60.	
1650	Navigation Act, 1651.	
1660	Restoration of Charles II., 1660.	
	Plague of London, 1665.	
1670	Fire of London, 1666	
1680	Habeas Corpus Act, 1679	
	Declaration of Indulgence, 1687.	
	The Revolution, 1688-89.	
1690	National Debt, 1693.	
	Bank of England, 1694.	
1700	Darien Scheme, 1695-1703.	
		Thirty Years' War, 1618-48.
		Louis XIV. King of France, 1643-1715.
		Peace of Westphalia, 1648.
		Revocation of Edict of Nantes, 1685 Many Huguenots flee to England
		Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, 1689-1725.

Walpole was really the first Prime Minister of England. In the old days when kings really governed—sometimes too harshly—there was no place for a Prime Minister. But when our kings were Germans, like George I. and George II., who could speak little or no English, and who were more interested in their dominions in Hanover than in England, the work had necessarily to be delegated to ministers, and the strongest minister naturally made himself supreme. Walpole ruled the country almost without consulting the king. Instead, he relied on his fellow ministers, and took care that they were always of the same party (the Whigs) as himself. Consequently it was in this period that the custom arose of entrusting the government to ministers of a single party, with a Prime Minister at their head. Thus Cabinet Government and the Party System had their origin about this time.

William Pitt the Elder.

During the remainder of George II.'s reign the Whigs remained in office, their chief leaders being the Duke of Newcastle and his brother Henry Pelham. But the most outstanding politician of this period was William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. Pitt was a strong patriot and a high-principled and incorruptible statesman. His oratorical gifts made him popular with the nation, but the Pelhams were jealous of his abilities, and the king disliked him. Their combined opposition excluded him from office for many years, but the outbreak of the Seven Years' War in 1756 brought him to the front, and he became in fact, though not in name, chief minister.

The King's Friends.

Shortly after the accession of George III. in 1760, Pitt

was dismissed from office. The new king desired to recover the power which had been slipping away from the Crown since the Revolution and a popular and able minister like Pitt was an obstacle in the way of his plans. George wished to rule as William III had done with the ministers as his nominees and servants. He formed a small group of personal followers called the King's Friends and the Tories, when they realised that a Stewart restoration was hopeless rallied to his side. In 1770 he found in Lord North a complacent politician who was ready to submit to his will and for twelve years North acted as Prime Minister. Then the Whigs who had now for leaders the famous orator, Charles James Fox and the great political thinker, Edmund Burke enjoyed a brief spell of power but they were speedily overthrown. The king's agent in their overthrow was William Pitt the Younger son of Chatham who became Prime Minister in 1783 at the age of twenty four.

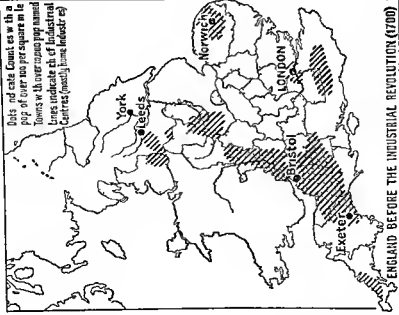
Pitt however was a man of a very different stamp from North. He was not content to be a mere instrument in the hands of the king and George found that in making him Prime Minister he had given himself a new master. Pitt was too independent to allow the king more than a limited right of interference in political affairs. Except for one brief interval he remained Prime Minister until his death in 1806 and his party held office for another twenty four years. The death of George III in 1820 made no difference to their position and it was not until after the death of George IV in 1830 that they were at last driven from power. Thus the long period of Tory rule lasted for nearly fifty years.

An Election Riot in 1784.

(Described in a letter by the poet, William Cowper.)

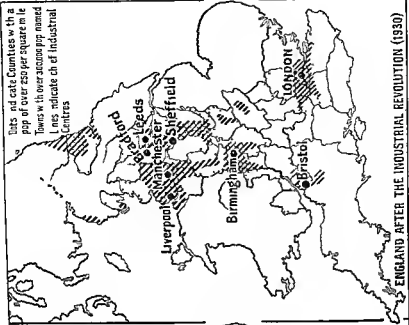
"The candidates for this county have set an example of economy, which other candidates would do well to follow, having come to an agreement on both sides to defray the expenses of their voters, but to open no houses for the entertainment of the rabble; a reform however which the rabble did not at all approve of, and testified their dislike of it by a riot. A stage was built from which the orators had designed to harangue the electors. This became the first victim of their fury. Having very little curiosity to hear what gentlemen could say who would give them nothing better than words, they broke it in pieces, and threw the fragments upon the hustings. The sheriff, the members, the lawyers, the voters, were instantly put to flight. They rallied, but were again routed by a second assault like the former. They then proceeded to break the windows of the inn to which they had fled; and a fear prevailing that at night they would fire the town, a proposal was made by the freeholders to face about and endeavour to secure them. At that instant a rioter, dressed in a merry-andrew's jacket, stepped forward and challenged the best man among them. Olney sent the hero to the field, who made him repent of his presumption. Mr. Ashburner was he. Seizing him by the throat, he shook him, he threw him to the earth, he made the hollowness of his skull resound by the application of his fists, and dragged him into custody without the least damage to his person. Animated by this example the other freeholders followed it, and in five minutes twenty-eight out of thirty ragamuffins were safely lodged in gaol."

Dots indicate Counties with a pop. of over 100,000 per square mile
 Towns with over 10,000 pop. named
 Lines indicate centres of Industrial Centres (mostly home industries)



ENGLAND BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (1700)

Dots indicate Counties with a pop. of over 250 per square mile
 Towns with over 10,000 pop. named
 Lines indicate centres of Industrial Centres



ENGLAND AFTER THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (1930)

Norman - It should be remembered that the population at the end of the 18th century was about 6,000,000, and increased to about 11,000,000 by 1850, or to about 31 million at the present date.

PART V.—ECONOMIC CHANGE AND THE RISE OF DEMOCRACY.

33.—THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

Just as Britain had undergone, at the end of the seventeenth century, a revolution which had, before long, changed the whole method of government, so in the eighteenth century there were revolutions which changed the whole method of manufacture and farming. These changes are usually known as the Industrial and Agricultural Revolutions.

As we have already seen, the seventeenth century was, under the influence of the Renaissance, an age of science. At first the scientists—men like Bacon and Harvey among others in England, Galileo and others abroad—had done little more than make experiments and write books, but before long their discoveries began to have practical effects. In other words, science was making itself useful; it was becoming what we call to-day "Applied Science."

Science was applied to the ordinary work of men—to farming in the country, and to manufacture in the towns, and, in those days of the domestic system of industry, to manufacture in the country as well. As early as the year 1589, in the reign of Elizabeth, the first complicated weaving machine had been invented—by Lee, whose "Stocking Frame" made a vast difference to the hosiery industry of Nottinghamshire. Most of the inventions which revolutionised the weaving industry, however, were made in the eighteenth century. In 1733 the rate at which a weaver at his loom could turn out

cloth was increased tenfold by the invention of Kay's Flying Shuttle and from that time the weavers could complete their allotted amount of cloth much faster than the spinners could let them have yarn ready to use.

It was therefore necessary to increase the speed at which the spinners could prepare yarn and the inventors turned their attention to this problem. In 1765 Hargreaves with his Spinning Jenny did for the spinners what Kay had previously done for the weavers: he produced a machine capable of spinning ten threads at once and so enabled the spinners to keep pace with the weavers. During the next fifteen years the spinners drew ahead. Hargreaves' Jenny had been worked by hand. Two years after its invention (1767) Sir Richard Arkwright's Water Frame enabled yarn to be spun by the use of a water mill which improved the quality of the yarn produced. Twelve years later a machine invented by Crompton called a mule united the advantages of these two previous inventions and made spinning still more rapid.

Meanwhile improvements were made in the looms but more important changes still were made in the manner in which they were driven. In 1785 Cartwright's

Power Loom was driven by a bull harnessed to a pole; four years later it was being driven by steam and the day of the modern factory had begun.

The Factory System

It is easy to see that the development of expensive machinery doomed the domestic system. Few houses are big enough to hold a large and complicated loom; even the old-fashioned looms had been far too bulky for convenience. But in addition to this the new machinery

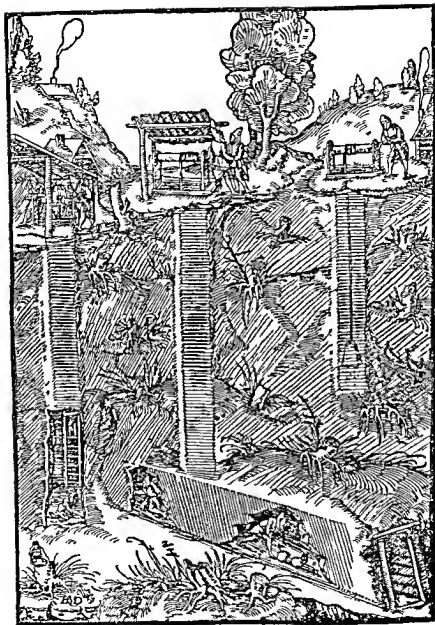
was far too costly for the average yeoman or home weaver to buy; and none of them could afford the new engines for driving looms, whether those engines were water-mills, as at first, or steam engines, as later.

Besides, one water-mill, and still more one steam engine, could drive a number of looms almost as easily as one, and it was therefore most economical to gather many looms into a single building—in other words, to make a “factory” or “mill,” and to go in for manufacture on a large scale. Only rich men could afford to do this, but for those who had the money it was a new and swift way of making a fortune. Consequently, factories equipped with power-looms became more and more common.

At first they were nearly always in the hilly districts, where swift streams capable of driving a water-wheel were plentiful. This was convenient, too, for another reason—namely, that it was in the hilly districts that the weaving industry was established already. In Yorkshire the woollen industry had already settled near to the moors where the sheep were reared; in Lancashire the cotton industry had grown because the damp climate was suitable. Hence these early factories were nearly always to be found up the hillsides; and if they are still called “mills” in Lancashire, that is largely because they were originally mills in reality—water-mills.

The Age of Steam and Iron.

Water-mills, however, were only a passing stage in the growth of the factory system, which now began to replace the old domestic system. Power-looms were becoming so common, and it was becoming usual to pack so many of them into a single factory, that before



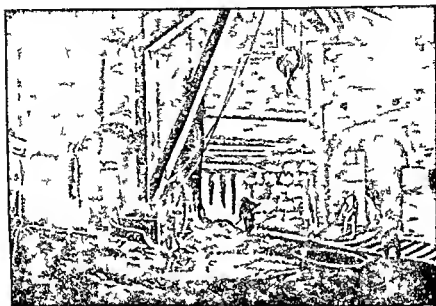
MINING OPERATIONS IN THE LATE SIXTEENTH CENTURY
(From Georg Agricola's *De Re Metallica* 156)

long water power was not strong enough, and steam power took its place at the end of the eighteenth century. The steam engine itself, however, had become possible only after a long process of development which had been going on for over a century.

The steam engine was made almost wholly of metal, and it could never have been successful if new processes of iron manufacture had not been introduced at about the same time as the new inventions in the textile industries. Once again it was a question of producing quickly—and cheaply. Until the eighteenth century the only known way of smelting iron-ore was by the use of charcoal, which gave out great heat under the bellows. Coke was almost unknown, and coal (which was used in many places for house fires) would not provide enough heat for iron smelting. For this reason most of the iron works of the country were, at this time, near the great forests; where charcoal was abundant—in the “weald” of Sussex, and in the well-wooded districts of North Warwickshire and the south of Staffordshire. These latter districts are still the main seat of the iron manufacture, and are known as the “Black Country,” but the iron manufacture first settled there on account of the forests of the Midlands.

All through the later seventeenth and the early eighteenth centuries men were directing their attention to the problem of making cheaper and quicker the production of iron, and all of them sought to accomplish this by discovering a substitute for charcoal for smelting, since charcoal had become scarce and expensive. Coal was tried, but the chief problem was to obtain from coal a heat not much less than could be obtained from charcoal; and this meant, in practice, discovering new

methods of improving the bellows which provided the air for the blast furnaces



A SMELTING HOUSE IN 1788
(from *Old England*)

Bellows are machinery and therefore they soon underwent the same revolution as other machinery was undergoing at this time. The earlier bellows had been worked by hand like those in a modern blacksmith's forge. Indeed all the earlier non-works were hardly more than forges; most of them were actually called forges and employed only a few hands each. Before long however bellows began to be worked first by horse power then by water power and finally by steam power. By these means the force and frequency of the blast were increased and the required heat could be obtained from coal furnaces.

It was at Carron, in Scotland, that water-power was first used for blast; it was at the same works (which were owned by Roebuck) that coal fuel was first employed successfully; and the water which worked the bellows was pumped by a steam engine. Thus Roebuck was in the forefront of the revolution in the iron industry, but others were making similar improvements at the same time. Chief among these progressive ironmasters was Abraham Darby, whose works were at Coalbrookdale, in Shropshire. He discovered that coal, treated in the same way as the charcoal-burners treated wood, gave a product—coke—which was suitable for smelting. His firm was hardly behind Roebuck in the use of coal blasts worked by power, and in the uses which they found for their iron when it was smelted they had no rivals. In 1767 they were employing iron rails for the trucks in their coal-mines at Coalbrookdale—and these were the first iron “railways” in England, although they showed no promise, as yet, of the great future which lay before “railways” of another sort. Twelve years later they built across the Severn the first iron bridge, not far from their works. This bridge is still standing, and around it has grown a small town whose name—“Iron-bridge”—shows how remarkable the structure appeared to the people of the late eighteenth century.

From this time the uses to which iron was put increased in all ways. Before long machinery came to consist almost wholly of iron, instead of almost wholly of wood. Even as early as 1790 the first iron ship was made. And in 1800 the city of Paris laid down a new water system consisting of English-made iron pipes, which from this time superseded everywhere the old wooden type of pipe.

A pipe is a cylinder, and the early history of the iron and steel manufacture is bound up with the development of metal cylinders. We have already seen that steam pumps were being employed by Roebuck at Carron as early as 1760 and by 1800 steam pumps and many other types of steam engines were quite common. But both pumps and steam engines depend for their force upon the cylinders in which their pistons work. Quite early in the eighteenth century steam engines had been made and used, but none of them was a success mainly because their cylinders were so roughly made that they permitted most of the steam to escape without doing its work. It was not until engineers appeared who could make engines which would not only work, but work economically, that steam came into its own.

This was the achievement of James Watt. Watt did not invent the steam engine, he invented a steam engine that would pay and the secret of his success lay in the one with which his cylinders were constructed. At first he made his own, and before long his engines were being demanded all over Europe. In 1767 he became partner to Roebuck at Carron but his best work was done in partnership with Boulton, at Soho near Birmingham. Boulton and Watt's engines were soon famous throughout the world and until well into the nineteenth century nearly every steam engine was either made by this firm or copied from their designs.

The works of Boulton and Watt at Soho were the beginning of the Black Country. Now that iron was successfully and cheaply made by means of coal smelting, the iron works of the country began to gather around the coal fields instead of around the forests as hitherto, so that, instead of being fairly scattered, they were soon

concentrated into one or two crowded districts. The same thing, as we have seen, had already happened to the cotton and woollen industries. Before long most of the iron in England was being smelted in the Black Country; most of the woollen goods were being made in Yorkshire; most of the cotton was being made in Lancashire; and most of the pottery was being made in North Staffordshire. All of these goods had to be transported from the places where they were made to the places where they were wanted. It was impossible to take them by road, because in the eighteenth century the roads were too bad, as a rule, for anything but horses. New means of carrying these goods, some of which (especially those of the iron and pottery trades) were very heavy, had to be discovered, and this led to a revolution in transport as great as the other industrial revolutions in the cloth and iron industries.

34.—THE REVOLUTION IN TRANSPORT.

It is still true that the cheapest way of carrying heavy goods is by water; and that is the reason why the Black Country is riddled with canals, along which the sand used in moulding, and the iron goods themselves, are mostly taken in barges. Until the eighteenth century it was almost impossible to get heavy goods to places which had no communication by water. The house-keepers of London obtained their coal from Newcastle-on-Tyne, but it had to come by sea, and for that reason was called "sea-coal." Inland towns near which no coal was found had to burn wood instead unless they were, like York, on a large river; and most of the coal used in the growing town of Manchester came from Worsley,

nine miles away and was brought in sacks two at a time on the backs of packhorses. It was because the Duke of Bridgewater who owned the mines at Worsley, wanted to obtain a better market for his coal that the revolution in transport began.

In the year 1759 the duke called in the aid of James Brindley who was an engineer quite uneducated but exceedingly clever. Brindley specialised in the construction of canals and the Bridgewater Canal from Worsley to Manchester was the first of many waterways which he made in England. In his canals Brindley always avoided as much as possible the construction of locks and this remarkable canal of his from Worsley passes over a swing bridge which crosses the river Irwell at Bolton. (This is the famous Bolton Aqueduct.)

This was merely the beginning of the canal mania, during which thousands of miles of inland waterways were constructed all over England. The men who did the digging were called navigators and it is from this that we get our word navy. Before long Brindley continued the Bridgewater Canal from Manchester to Runcorn.

even the best roads were often impassable, and light coaches had regularly to be pulled by six horses on account of the mud.

Here are some notes on roads made by the famous traveller Arthur Young, in the course of a tour through Northern England during the winter of 1770-71:—

“From London to Oxford. Turnpike; middling. Many narrow ways, where a horse cannot pass a



A STAGE WAGON.

These waggon were used by carriers for the transport of goods, also by passenger who could not afford the stage-coach

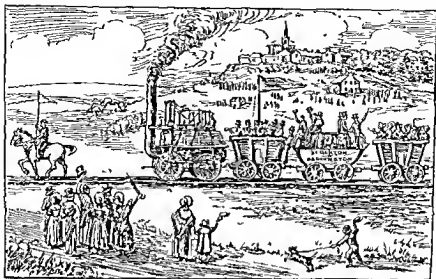
carriage; and in general, in this country, the not breaking the stones small enough is a great nuisance.

“From Lancaster to Preston. Turnpike; very bad.

“From Wigan to Warrington. Turnpike; this is a paved road, and most infamously bad. Any person would imagine that the boobies of the country had made it with a view to immediate destruction; for the breadth is only sufficient for one carriage.”

Clearly roads of this sort were useless for the transport of heavy goods, and it is no wonder that, as the Industrial Revolution progressed, and even the new canals proved insufficient for the needs of trade, the roads received attention. For example, during the fourteen years from 1760 to 1774 over four hundred and fifty Acts of Parliament were passed for the construction of new main roads, and before long the engineers applied themselves to the making of roads as scientifically built as those of the Romans.

Chief of these road engineers was John Landon Macadam, from whom all modern road-making processes are named. His remedy for the rapid decay of the roads was, principally, care in construction, and he laid down the rule, which is still observed by road engineers, that no stone more than two inches thick shall be used. Stones of this size will be pressed down by passing traffic, instead of being knocked up and so damaging both the road and the vehicle. Macadam's roads soon made it more economical to use wheeled vehicles for commercial transport, so that the new canals had a powerful rival. Moreover, new roads needed now bridges, and this called into play engineering skill of another sort. In this connection the chief pioneer was Telford, who built over twelve hundred bridges in Scotland alone, besides a thousand miles of roads. It was Telford, too, who constructed many roads and bridges in Wales, the most famous of the latter being the great suspension bridge over the Menai Straits. Telford is also famous as a canal constructor, since it was he who, in 1804, began that series of links between the Highland lakes which are known as the Caledonian Canal.



STEPHENSON'S NO. 2 ENGINE STOCKTON TO DARLINGTON.
(From a print of 1825.)

Railways.

The first railways were only tracks for coal-trucks. Moreover, the first locomotives were not railway engines; they were built for use on the new roads. It was soon seen, however, that even the new, scientifically constructed roads were not good enough for heavy steam traffic. Only a year after the successful invention of his road locomotive, Trevithick, its inventor, adapted it for running on rails.

This was in 1804, but locomotive steam engines were still under the same disadvantage as had held back stationary engines in the previous century—they would work, but not economically, and therefore it did not pay to use them for commercial purposes. Just as Watt had made it his business to produce a steam power engine which was worth while to run, so it was the work of George Stephenson to produce a locomotive steam engine

A Railway Traveller in the Early Nineteenth Century

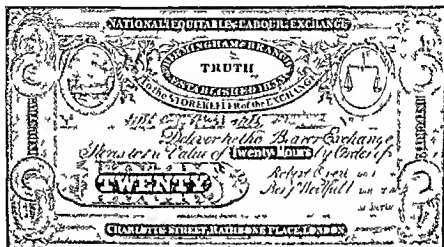
(From the *Greville Memoirs*, a diary written by George Greville, Clerk to the Privy Council.)

"*Knowsley, July 18th, 1837.*—Tired of doing nothing in London, and of hearing about the Queen and the elections, I resolved to vary the scene and run down here to see the Birmingham railroad, Liverpool, and Liverpool races. So I started at five o'clock on Sunday evening, got to Birmingham at half-past five on Monday morning, and got upon the railroad at half-past seven. Nothing can be more comfortable than the vehicle in which I was put—a sort of chariot with two places—and there is nothing disagreeable about it but the occasional whiffs of stinking air which it is impossible to exclude altogether. The first sensation is a slight degree of nervousness and a feeling of being run away with, but a sense of security soon intervenes, and the velocity is delightful. Town after town, one park and *château* after another, are left behind with the rapid variety of a moving panorama, and the continual bustle and animation of the changes and stoppages make the journey very entertaining.

"The train was very long, and heads were continually popping out of the several carriages, attracted by well-known voices, and then came the greetings and exclamations of surprise, the 'Where are you going?' and 'How on earth came you here?' Considering the novelty of its establishment there is very little embarrassment, and it certainly renders all other travelling irksome and tedious by comparison. It was peculiarly gay at this time, because there was so much going on. There were all sorts of people going to Liverpool races, barristers to the assizes, and candidates to their several elections."

The Industrial Revolution in Scotland

We have already seen that Roebuck of the Carron works was one of the leaders in the development of the iron industry. Indeed Scotland took the lead in more than one of the changes of the Industrial Revolution.



ONE OF OLIVER'S EXPERIMENTS

A Labour note representing twenty hours of work

The chief of his mills was at New Lanark, and before he died he handed over the control of it to Owen. Here Owen tried to work out all sorts of new ideas. He was one of the first supporters of factory acts; he established schools for the children of his employees; he introduced reforms which would help to keep the workers more healthy; and he set up a factory store where they could obtain their food, clothes, and so on at much cheaper prices than at the ordinary shops. This store was the forerunner of our modern Co-operative Stores. In his care for his workers Owen anticipated the Welfare Clubs of the works of to-day.

35.—THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION.

One of the most widespread effects of the Industrial Revolution was that it altered the working conditions of men throughout the countryside. Before that revolution even the towns had had their corn-fields and the villages had had their workshops. In fact, at a time when roads were too bad to be much used, and when other means of communication did not exist at all, every town and village had to be, as we have seen, self-sufficing. All this was changed by the Industrial Revolution. Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, for example, ceased to make most of the things which their inhabitants needed, and specialised in iron, cotton, blades, and woollens.

Nevertheless their people still required bread although they no longer helped to produce corn, and consequently those who remained in the country had to produce more corn than before as the new workers in the towns were now dependent upon the country for their food. Instead of merely growing the things which they were likely to

rarely happened. Hence the old crops—wheat, barley and oats, and very little else—were sown year after year until the yield of the fields was ridiculously small. Nothing was known about crops, such as turnips and clover, which would help to restore the exhausted ground to fertility, and this ignorance had another result. So long as these crops were unknown the cattle and sheep could not be properly fed during winter, and, in fact, large numbers of them had to be killed and salted for meat at the end of autumn. Hence the people were poorly fed in winter time, and the cattle never had a chance to grow to their proper size.

Finally the method of dividing the strips in the wide "open fields" was very wasteful. It was only fair that the good and the bad ground should be shared out equally, but this meant that hours every week were wasted in walking from one strip to another—for often the strips were long distances apart. Moreover, the strips were not properly separated; there were no hedges and very few ditches (which also meant that the land was not well drained), and it was not uncommon for men to take their ploughs out during the night and steal from their neighbour one or two furrows-width of land. "Cursed is he that removeth his neighbour's landmark," says the Bible, and it was a very necessary warning in the days of the "open fields."

New Farming Methods.

This state of affairs could continue in the days before enterprise became fashionable and necessary, but by the end of the eighteenth century it seemed likely that England would soon be unable to produce sufficient corn to feed her growing population, and new methods of

farming were essential. One of the pioneers in this Agricultural Revolution was Townshend, a brother-in-law of the Prime Minister Walpole. He retired from politics while he was still fairly young and devoted himself on his lands in Norfolk to the development of scientific farming. His chief work was to make popular the cultivation of turnips and clover—both useful food for cattle and both excellent for restoring land which has been exhausted by corn crops. For this reason he became known as Turnip Townshend. He also worked out the best order in which to change the crops in the fields and this Norfolk Rotation of crops (turnip, barley, clover, wheat) soon came into regular use all over the country.

This improvement in the methods of agriculture which soon began to increase the production of corn in England (and so provide the necessary food for those who had withdrawn from agriculture and become specialists in manufacture) also provided the necessary food for cattle in winter and consequently the breeding of English cattle and sheep made great strides. Robert Bakewell of Leicestershire made his name by breeding new Leicesters—sheep which were big enough to produce twice as much meat and wool as the ill-nourished sheep of the previous century. In the north of England, Charles Colling applied the same principles to the rearing of cattle and his Durham Shorthorns proved how the output of beef could be increased to meet the needs of the expanding population.

A New Enclosure Movement.

None of these changes was possible without the expenditure of a good deal of money—more than could

be afforded by the average yeoman farmer of the eighteenth century. Hence the yeomen, and the other small landowners, soon found themselves outdistanced by wealthier competitors—capitalists who were willing to lay out large sums of money in improving their land and live-stock. Smaller men, like the yeomen, could not afford to do this, and were usually driven to sell their lands and seek a living elsewhere.

When they had acquired the land which they wished to develop, the wealthy farmers set about enclosing it, since neither cattle breeding nor a scientific rotation of crops was possible in the great open fields of the Middle Ages. Where possible the land enclosed was bought, in the way we have already seen, from the smaller landowners. But this was on the whole rare. The more common course was to obtain an Act of Parliament giving power to the greater landowners to enclose the necessary land. Much land, as we have seen, had been enclosed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, but that was for the rearing of sheep, whereas nearly all the land enclosed in the eighteenth century was for growing corn, and quite half of England was still unenclosed in 1700. Something like fifteen hundred Enclosure Acts were passed between 1760 and 1800, and before the nineteenth century was well begun the English countryside was almost everywhere divided out into hedged or walled fields as it is to-day.

Enclosure by Act of Parliament.

(From the Journals of the House of Commons, 1766.)

“A Petition of Stephen Croft, Esquire, Lord of the Manor of Stillington, in the County of York; of the

Reverend James Worsley, Patron of the Vicarage of Stillington of the Reverend Lawrence Staine,¹ vicar of the said parish and of William Stamford, Esquire, and of several other persons within the said parish, was presented to the House, and read setting forth that, within the said manor and parish is a common, or waste, called Stillington Common and also open fields and meadows which in their present situation, are incapable of improvement, and that it would be of great advantage to the several persons interested in the said common fields, and meadows if they were enclosed and divided into allotments, and all rights of common thereon, or upon any other common lands in the said parish, were extinguished, or if the said common was enclosed, and a power given to the proprietors to enclose the same, and after enclosing the same, all right of common was to cease, and therefore praying that leave may be given to bring in a bill for the purposes aforesaid in such manner, and under such regulations, as the House shall deem meet

‘Ordered, that leave be given to bring in a bill pursuant to the prayer of the said petition

The works of Samuel Smiles form good reading on the period John Wesley—*through England on Horseback in the Eighteenth Century* by W B Fitzgerald gives interesting pictures

36—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

The end of the eighteenth century was a time of change in other countries besides England. The greatest revolution of all was in France, and there it was a revolution, not only in the manner of living but also in

¹ A famous writer of the eighteenth century author of *Tristram Shandy*

the manner of thinking. About the middle of the century the aristocracy in France had been stirred by the writings of men like Voltaire and Rousseau. Voltaire was a "satirist"—that is, his writings were chiefly devoted to making fun of the customs and the government of France in his day in the hope that his mockery would lead to their improvement. Rousseau, on the other hand, was an "idealist"—he set himself to show how good could come out of bad; how the evil which he saw in the world could be made to give way, once again, to the good which he believed to exist in every man's heart.

Rousseau's chief book was *The Social Contract*, in which he attempted to prove that the unhappiness which existed in his country—and everywhere in Europe—was due to the government being in the hands of the upper classes instead of in the hands of the people. "Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains." Those were the opening words of *The Social Contract*, and Rousseau's message was that men might throw off those chains if they would rise against their present rulers and take over the government themselves.

Rousseau's doctrines had an enormous influence over the French people, and when in the year 1789 they rose in revolt, it was from Rousseau that they took their motto of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity." In four years they put their king to death, abolished the monarchy, made France into a republic, and called everybody alike "citizen," whether they were rich or poor. Moreover, in 1792, they issued a decree that they would help any other people which attempted to treat its government as they had treated theirs.

At first Britain had been generally inclined to agree with the French Revolution. The English Revolution of

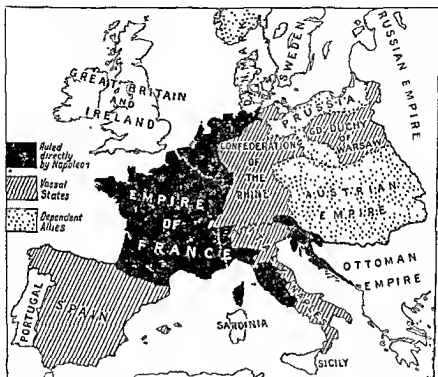
a hundred years before had also been a revolt against harsh rulers and the Whig party in particular (which had been chiefly responsible for the English Revolution) believed that the Revolution in France was going to be much the same as ours. But the orator Burke who was one of the greatest of the Whigs warned them against it and prophesied that it would end as a despotism—as it soon did. Burke's influence began to turn Britain against the movement in France and the French decree of 1792 settled the matter. In the next year our country went to war with the French and remained at war with them for over twenty years.

The Second Hundred Years War with France

War with the French was no new thing at that time. In fact the eighteenth century was one long war between the British and the French, so that one historian has called it the Second Hundred Years War. Like the previous Hundred Years War with France in the Middle Ages it was not a single long war, but a series of fairly short ones. From 1689 to 1714 there was fighting almost without a break and it was in the Spanish Succession War of 1702 to 1714 that the Duke of Marlborough won his famous victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. Gibraltar was captured from the Spaniards who at this period were nearly always the allies of the French.

After this came the long peace under the rule of Walpole but before Walpole ceased to be Prime Minister the struggle had begun again. Between the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48) and the Seven Years War (1756-63) there were eight years of nominal peace but even during those years the French and the British

were fighting in India and America. Indeed, it was clear by now that Britain was fighting for an Empire; and it was during this middle period of the eighteenth century that Clive—and later Warren Hastings—brought



NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT (1810). (See page 230.)

India under British control, and that the conquest of Canada began by Wolfe's capture of Quebec in 1753.

Hardly had Britain won the northern half of North America than our old colonies in the southern half (New York, Virginia, Massachusetts, and the rest) broke away and declared themselves to be independent, and when we tried to force them to remain loyal the French

came to their assistance. In the War of American Independence which followed (1775-83) we had not only America and France against us but Spain and Holland as well. The independence of the American colonies had to be conceded. Ten years later we found ourselves at war with France again. This was the war against the French Revolution (1793-1802) and it was followed almost immediately (1803-15) by the war against Napoleon who had by then made himself the despotic ruler of France.

Napoleon

It was in this war that Nelson and Wellington became famous: the former by his victories at the battle of the Nile (when he prevented Napoleon from conquering Egypt and perhaps India as well) and seven years later (1805) of Trafalgar which frustrated Napoleon's plans for invading England. Wellington's achievement was to keep the best French armies occupied in Spain during the Peninsular War (1808-14) and so prevent Napoleon from making himself master of Europe and then finally to crush Napoleon at the battle of Waterloo (1815).

Thus ended twenty-two years of nearly continuous war. In France the peasants and other working classes suffered heavily. But the victorious countries were hardly if at all better off. Every war brings in its train poverty, disease and hardships of all sorts. For a whole generation after the battle of Waterloo Britain was in the grip of perplexing problems which were all the more acute on account of the disturbing industrial changes about which we have read already.

Further Reading and Reference

The Tale of Two Cities by Charles Dickens, is a story of the French Revolution. *Fort Liberty* (Quiller-Couch) introduces W. H.

37.—THE ROMANTIC MOVEMENT IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

The French Revolution was only one of the indications, at the end of the eighteenth century, that men's minds were turning towards the study of liberty. Only a few years before the French Revolution began the British colonies in America had won their freedom, and had announced, in their Declaration of Independence,

"that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. . . . That whenever any form of Government becomes destructive of these ends it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it and to institute a new Government."

The influence of this declaration, and of other similar writings, had done very much to encourage the French in their revolt against their rulers.

If in the eighteenth century men were, as Jean Jacques Rousseau said, everywhere in chains, literature was equally so. The poets, and even the prose-writers of that time were anything but original in the way they wrote, and most of their writings were simply imitations of the writings of the Greeks and Romans. Rousseau, who did so much to persuade men to throw off their political chains, also induced the writers of France to cease their imitations of classical authors and to write in a more original manner. Thus Rousseau helped to originate a revolution in literature as well as in politics.

English Romantic Writers

This literary revolution is known as the Romantic Movement because instead of trying to write and think like the ancients men now awoke to the romance and wonder of the world in which they lived and began to write and think in their own way. In England the leaders of the Romantic Movement were William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge, who in 1798 published their *Lyrical Ballads*. This book was a revolt against the prevailing type of poetry which followed fixed rules—especially the rules of the classics, and in it Wordsworth especially tried to make plain to his contemporaries the interest and wonder of everyday things, and particularly of Nature. Wordsworth, in fact, is chiefly famous for thus pointing out to men the beauties in Nature and the lessons to be learned from them, and under his influence the poets of the nineteenth century nearly all sought their inspiration from the same source.

Wordsworth's partner in the writing of the *Lyrical Ballads* was Coleridge whose influence was rather different. Instead of trying to make ordinary things wonderful, as Wordsworth did, Coleridge tried to make wonderful things seem ordinary. His most famous poem is *The Ancient Mariner* in which supernatural beings are introduced as though they were normal. *The Ancient Mariner* is a "ballad"—that is, a poem comprising short stanzas with a simple metre, and narrating a story like the popular poems and songs of the Middle Ages. In fact, one of the most prominent features of the Romantic Movement was a revival of interest in medieval things. Imitations of the old ballads had already become fashionable before Wordsworth and

Coleridge began to write, but their influence made such imitations more fashionable still.

This interest in the Middle Ages continued far into the nineteenth century. In its early years Sir Walter Scott wrote his "Waverley Novels," many of which were about the Middle Ages, and nearly all of which were historical in subject, and he was followed in this by many popular novelists who were not nearly as gifted as he was. Even the writers of a later age maintained their interest in medieval matters—for example, Tennyson, with his *Idylls of the King* and other medieval poems, Morris and Rossotti, who wrote poems on similar subjects, and Lytton, Kingsley, and Reade, whose novels of medieval life are still widely read.

The English romantic writers were like Rousseau, too, in their love of liberty. All of them welcomed the French Revolution when it began, though some (like Wordsworth) changed their opinion of it. Chief of those whose enthusiasm never waned were Shelley and Byron. Byron showed his belief in a practical way by fighting for the Greeks in their revolt against the Turks and dying while on service with them.

38.—DEPRESSION, REPRESSION AND REFORM.

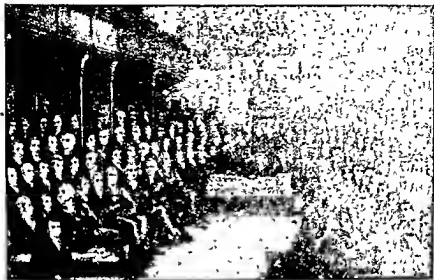
The Industrial Revolution, while it made the nation as a whole richer, led to much suffering among the working classes. Towns became fearfully overcrowded, slums grew, wages were kept down, and there was poverty everywhere. It so happened, too, that these evil effects were being most felt at a time (about 1800) when the wars with France were also helping to increase poverty and unemployment, so that, for the poor all over England,

was held in St Peter's Fields Manchester to hear a speech by one of the most influential leaders of the workers—William Hunt. The crowd was quite orderly but the magistrates sent a troop of yeomanry to disperse them. A number of innocent people were killed and injured. The other event was the passing of the famous Six Acts which amongst other things made most kinds of large meetings illegal except with the permission of a magistrate. The action of the government was unpopular and the policy of repression began gradually to fall into disfavour.

Remedy by Reform

During and after the Napoleonic Wars working class leaders like Francis Place (who was himself the son of poor parents though he later became wealthy) devoted themselves to the plan of getting laws passed which would enable the labouring classes to vote at parliamentary elections and so have some control over the laws which were passed by parliament. Place and his followers were called Radicals because their policy struck at the root (Latin *radix*) of the English parliamentary system which refused the vote to all but landowners.

For many years the project of the Radicals received no sympathy in parliament since the landowners there were not willing to share their privilege of voting with poorer men who would probably vote against them. In 1829 however the Radicals received some encouragement from the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act which allowed Catholics to sit in parliament. In the next year a Whig government took office in place of the Tory one and so the prospects of the Radicals seemed



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN 1821-23.
(After J. Scott)

brighter still, as many of the younger Whigs (notably Lord John Russell) were in favour of reform.

The First Reform Act.

In 1832 the first Parliamentary Reform Bill became law. This act was only the first of five which were passed during the next hundred years, but it is rightly regarded as the most important of them all, because for the first time in English history it admitted to the vote a new class of people. Ever since feudal times the chief qualification for sharing in full citizenship had been the owning of land, and with few exceptions none but landowners could either elect or be elected to parliament. Now, however, others were admitted. In the country districts men who held their land as tenants, not as owners, received the vote so long as the amount

39.—POLITICS AND THE PEOPLE.

The Chartists.

It did not take long to show the manual workers that the hopes they had placed in the Reform Act were doomed to disappointment. The Reform of 1832 was very beneficial to the middle and manufacturing classes, but not to the workers, and soon they were eager for still further reforms. Some of them drew up what they called the "Peoplo's Charter"—a list of six reforms which they thought to be necessary for the benefit of the workers. These six demands were as follows:

1. Votes for all men.
2. Secret voting, or "voting by ballot," instead of the public voting which was still the rule.
3. Elections every year.
4. Abolition of the rule that only men who owned property could be elected to Parliament.
5. Payment of Members of Parliament.
6. A re-arrangement of the constituencies so that they should be as nearly equal in size as possible.

Some of the "Chartists" (as those who agitated for the "Charter" were called) tried to obtain their demands by violence. Led by men such as Feargus O'Connor they formed bands and threatened to riot—especially in the years 1838 and 1848. It so happened that in 1848 there were revolutions in many of the countries of Europe, and therefore the Chartist riots in that year seemed more dangerous than they really were. The government, however, took proper precautions and nothing came of the Chartists' threats. It seemed as though the last had been heard of their six demands.

But this was not the case. These demands, which the government had refused to grant under compulsion, were gradually conceded freely by later governments—except the third which is not likely to become law since in election every year would be too upsetting to the country. The fifth demand had to wait till the twentieth century for its fulfilment—in 1911—but the remainder were granted before the reign of Queen Victoria was ended. The fourth (to allow men who did not own property to enter parliament) became law in 1858, and the second (vote by ballot) in 1872. Over the first and last however, there was a longer struggle.

In 1867 the Conservative leader, Disraeli, surprised his followers and everybody else by proposing a Reform Bill which gave the vote to almost every man who lived in a town. This Bill is known as the Second Reform Act and it went a long way towards granting the first and chief claim of the Chartists—votes for all men.

The act of 1867, however, did not give the vote to the poorer people who lived in the country. This defect was made good nearly twenty years later by the Reform Act of 1884. Women were first seriously considered in connection with politics in 1867, but the franchise was not extended to them until the twentieth century. The Parliamentary Reform Act of 1918 admitted women to be members of Parliament and gave those over thirty the right to vote. An act of 1928 (the fifth great reform within one hundred years) gave the vote to all men and women over twenty one on equal terms.

The last "clause" of the Peoples Charter became law in 1880, when an extra reform act was passed to make the constituencies more nearly equal.

One important act of the twentieth century, although

not connected with the franchise, was the Parliament Act of 1911. Here it was provided that, under certain conditions, if a Bill was passed three times in succession by the House of Commons it became law in spite of rejection by the House of Lords. Thus the importance of the House of Commons was further increased.

Further Reading and Reference.

Shirley, by Charlotte Bronte, tells of the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. *Silas Marner*, by George Eliot, gives vivid pictures of industry before the development of the factory system.

.40.—FACTORY ACTS AND POOR RELIEF.

The other reforming measure of 1833 was the Factory Act, usually known as "Ashloy's Act," since the man who did more than any other to get it passed was Lord Ashley, later Earl of Shaftesbury.

Besides appointing inspectors, this act made it illegal for children under thirteen years of age to work for more than nine hours a day, and for "young persons" from thirteen to eighteen to work for more than twelve hours. At the same time all night work was abolished for everybody under eighteen.

So much unemployment and poverty had followed in the wake of the Industrial Revolution that the workers were willing to gain a living in any way they possibly could. One way was to work an excessive number of hours each day; another was to allow their wives to earn extra money in the factories; and another—and by far the worst—was to compel their children to do the same. In those days there were no proper schools and the children had plenty of time to spare. Their parents sent

them to work while they were very young in order that they might swell the family earnings by bringing home a few pence a week. Children were often sent to work in the factories before they were five and in some cases while they were only three.

Life in the Factories a Hundred Years Ago

(From the Report of the Factory Commissioners 1833
Evidence given by Joseph Badder of Leicester)

'I have known them work children, from seven till twelve in age, from six in the morning till ten o'clock at night and give no time for meals. I have seen children knocked down by the billy rollers. It is a weapon that a man will easily take up in a passion. I have seen them fall asleep, and they have been performing their work with their hands while they were asleep, after the billy had stopped, when their work was over. I have stopped and looked at them for two minutes, going through the motions of piecing fast asleep, when there was really no work to do and they were really doing nothing. I believe when we have been working long hours, that they have never been washed, but on Saturday night, for weeks together.

Further Reforms

Having thus done so much to improve the lot of the factory workers Shaftesbury next set himself to do the same for the workers in the mines. In 1842 the first of the mines acts enacted that no woman and no child under ten years of age should in the future be employed underground.

Meantime, Shaftesbury, with the aid of Richard Oastler and Michael Sadler, had been agitating for a legal limit of ten hours to the day's work, and they had tried to show that if men were kept working longer than that they were so tired at the end of the day that, after all, they could do no more in twelve than in ten hours. In 1847 a "ten-hours' day" for women and children was secured. This meant that the men obtained a ten-hours' day as well, because the machinery could not be run without the help of the women and children. Since then many other factory acts have carried much further the improvement of working conditions.

Life in the Mining Districts a Hundred Years Ago.

(From Disraeli's *Sybil*.)

"It is the twilight hour; the hour that announces the cessation of English toil, and sends forth the miner and the collier to breathe the air of earth and gaze on the light of Heaven.

"They come forth: the mine delivers its gang and the pit its bondsmen; the forge is silent and the engine is still. The plain is covered with the swarming multitude: hands of stalwart men, broad-chested and muscular, wet with toil, and black as the children of the tropics; troops of youth, alas! of both sexes, though neither their raiment nor their language indicates the difference; all are clad in male attire. Can we wonder at the ludicrous coarseness of their language when we remember the savage rudeness of their lives? Naked to the waist, an iron chain, fastened to a belt of leather, runs between their legs clad in canvas trousers, while on hands and feet an English girl for twelve, sometimes for sixteen hours

was still, however, necessary to do something for those who were out of work and in poverty for one reason or another.

We have seen that in the sixteenth century the famous Poor Law of 1601 made each parish responsible for its own poor. This, naturally, made the parish anxious to have as few poor as possible, and it became usual for parishes to turn away people who came to live in them for fear that they might become poor and cost the parish money. In other words it was exceedingly difficult for any newcomer to obtain a "settlement" in a fresh parish if he wished to leave his old one, and in 1662 a law was passed making it legal for any parish to exclude newcomers in this way if they did so within forty days of their arrival. This "Act of Settlement" certainly freed many parishes from unwanted poor, but it also prevented the poor who were there already from moving elsewhere, and so it did little real good in the long run.

In 1782 an important act, called Gilbert's Act, was passed. In some respects Gilbert's Act was a wise one, and in others it was very foolish. Among the wiser clauses was one ordering the appointment of "Guardians" of the poor, whose duty it was to see that the money intended for helping the poor really reached those for whom it was intended, since, as it said, "by the incapacity, negligence, or misconduct of overseers the money raised for the relief of the poor is frequently misapplied." Another clause enacted that "the guardians of the poor shall provide a suitable and convenient (work)house when wanted." But it was foolish to enact that only the aged and infirm should be admitted into the workhouses, and that able-bodied poor men should be kept by the parish, outside the workhouse, until work could be found for them, for

the able bodied poor knowing that the parish would provide for them while they were out of work made less and less effort to obtain employment. And so the number of paupers grew and the expenses of the parishes grew quite as fast.

Things became worse after what was known as the Speenhamland Decision. In 1795 a meeting of the magistrates of Bailsire was held at a village called Speenhamland. They decided that as poverty and unemployment were so bad, they would in future make up from the rates what the labourers could not earn in wages and moreover when prices went up the allowance of money was to go up with them. After this the poor earned less than ever whether they were employed or not. If they were in work they received their wages; if they were out of work they received much the same amount of money without working for it. The problem of unemployment became more acute than ever as the Speenhamland Decision was soon adopted all over the country.

No attempt at reform was made until 1831 when the Poor Law Amendment Act (or New Poor Law as it was then called) was passed.

This Act went back to the old system of compelling the poor, if they wanted to receive poor relief, to go into the workhouses for it. This was hard and disagreeable but it was necessary for if the lot of the man who cannot earn his living is made as pleasant as that of the man who in unemployment would soon become fashionable. The Poor Law of 1831 laid down the rule that the poorest worker must be better off than any of those who are unemployed, and it established machinery strong enough to carry out this rule.

This machinery consisted of three "Poor Law Commissioners," who were men responsible for the administration of poor relief throughout the whole country, so that in future poor folks should be treated in somewhat similar manner in whatever parish they lived. The commissioners were empowered to compel parishes to form "unions" wherever they thought fit—whereas, by Gilbert's Act of 1782 parishes had been able to please themselves whether they formed unions or not. Wherever a union was formed a "Board of Guardians of the Poor" was to be appointed. Some of these Guardians were to be elected by the ratepayers, and some were to be chosen by owners of property so that they were not likely to be guilty of the "incapacity, negligence, or misconduct" of which the Gilbert Act had complained. Finally, each union was to maintain a workhouse, and no relief whatever was to be given to able-bodied poor people outside the workhouse.

On the whole the act of 1834 worked fairly well in the country districts, though it was never quite successful in the towns. In order to remove as much confusion as possible between the different localities administering poor relief the three Poor Law Commissioners were in 1847 replaced by a "Poor Law Board." In 1871 the Poor Law Board became part of the Local Government Board, which supervised all the affairs of the various localities, and in 1919 the Local Government Board was replaced by the Ministry of Health.

Meantime it was being realised that the Poor Law was not working smoothly, and early in the present century a Commission was appointed to enquire into its defects. In 1909 this Commission reported that *many reforms* were due, but years passed before anything was done.

248 Town Life in Early Nineteenth Century

In 1830 the Boards of Guardians were abolished and their powers transferred to the town and county councils



BIRMINGHAM BEFORE THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
(from a print of 1813)

41—TOWN LIFE IN THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY

During the Industrial Revolution towns had grown apace, the population of Liverpool, for example, had increased in the eighteenth century from 1000 to 200 000, that of Birmingham from 1000 to 150 000, that of Sheffield from 1000 to 100 000, and other towns had grown in the same proportion. Naturally, the methods which had been satisfactory for governing these towns while they were still small were no longer suited for the huge centres of population which they had become during the Industrial Revolution. The corporations in many

200 Town Life in Early Nineteenth Century

passed most of the towns which had sprung up so recently that they had hitherto had no corporation applied for a charter entitling them to have a town Council. In 1888 County Councils were established to govern the counties in the same way as the borough councils were governing the towns and in 1894 a law was passed providing for Urban District Councils to govern those rural areas in England which contain large populations.

Under these Borough County and Urban District Councils local government and town life have improved rapidly. Lighting and drainage were two of the first problems to be tackled. When the councils had in town after town provided for proper lighting proper drainage and a good water supply, the health of the towns improved apace.

Another important reform was the institution of a strong police force. Hitherto the old town watchman going his rounds with his bell had been sufficient as a rule, to keep the peace, but when the new growing towns caused vast masses of uneducated men to be huddled together in discontented impoverished groups disorder rapidly increased and better means of maintaining order became necessary. The need was first felt in London and it was for this reason that in 1829 Sir Robert Peel, who was then Home Secretary devised a real police force on modern lines for the Metropolitan District around the capital. At first the new police system was widely regarded as an attempt to enslave the people, but the speedy reduction in the number of offences and the increase in the conviction of criminals soon impressed upon people the advantage of such a body of men. The organisation proved so successful

that by an Act of 1835 every municipal borough was required to appoint a police force.

I.—A Manchester Slum.

(From Mrs. Gaskell's *Mary Barton*.)

"So the two men went along till they arrived in Berry Street. It was unpaved, and down the middle a gutter forced its way, every now and then forming pools in the holes with which the street abounded. As they passed, women from their doors tossed household slops of every description into the gutter; they ran into the next pool, which overflowed and stagnated. Heaps of ashes were the stepping-stones on which the passer-by, who cared in the least for cleanliness, took care not to put his foot. Our friends were not dainty, but even they picked their way till they got to some steps leading down to a small area where a person standing would have his head about one foot below the level of the street, and might at the same time, without the least motion of his body, touch the window of the cellar and the damp muddy wall right opposite. You went down one step even from the foul area into the cellar in which a family of human beings lived. It was very dark inside. The window panes, many of them, were broken and stuffed with rags, which was reason enough for the dusky light that pervaded the place even at midday. After the account I have given of the state of the street no one can be surprised that on going into the cellar inhabited by Davenport the smell was so fetid as almost to knock the two men down. Quickly recovering themselves, as those inured to such things do, they began to penetrate the thick darkness of the place and to see three or four

little children rolling on the damp, nay wet brick floor, through which the stagnant, filthy moisture of the street oozed up the fireplace was empty and black, the wife sat on her husband's chair and cried in the dark loneliness

II—A Small Mining Town

(From Disraeli's *Sybil*)

Wodgate had the appearance of a vast squalid suburb. As you advanced, leaving behind you long lines of little dingy tenements with infants lying about the road, you expected every moment to emerge into some streets and encounter buildings bearing some correspondence, in their size and comfort, to the considerable population swarming and busied around you. Nothing of the kind. There were no public buildings of any sort, no churches, chapels, town hall, institute, theatre, and the principal streets in the heart of the town in which were situated the coarse and grimy shops, though formed by houses of a greater elevation than the preceding, were equally narrow and if possible more dirty. At every fourth or fifth house alleys, seldom above a yard wide and streaming with filth, opened out of the street. These were crowded with dwellings of various size, while from the principal court often branched out a number of smaller alleys, or rather narrow passages, than which nothing can be conceived more close and squalid and obscure. Here during the days of business the sound of the hammer and the file never ceased, amid gutters of abomination and piles of foulness and stagnant pools of filth, reservoirs of leprosy and plague, whose exhalations were sufficient to taint the atmosphere of the whole kingdom and fill the country with fever and pestilence.

42.—THE CORN LAWS AND FREE TRADE.

The general desire for freedom in the later eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries showed itself in matters of trade as much as in anything else.

By 1800 it was becoming important to obtain foreign supplies of a commodity which had hitherto been produced in abundance at home. In 1750 England was still mainly an agricultural country and most of the population lived in villages. A hundred years later England was mainly a manufacturing country and most of her population lived in towns. Not only so, but the total population of the country had increased enormously. Consequently, whereas in the early eighteenth century England had easily produced as much corn as her people needed, in the early nineteenth century, when most Englishmen were engaged in occupations which produced no food (though the people needed more food than ever), it became necessary to import supplies of corn from abroad.

This, however, was difficult owing to the "Corn Laws," which imposed such heavy taxes on foreign corn that hardly any of it was imported. In 1815, after the wars, a new Corn Law provided that no corn should be imported from abroad as long as the price of English corn was below the exceedingly high price of eighty shillings a quarter.

In this way English agriculture was "protected"; and "protection" of this sort for English manufacturers as well as English farmers was the policy of every government in the eighteenth century. But already the tide was turning in favour of Free Trade, which, though it would admit into this country foreign goods which might

compete with English goods would nevertheless it was thought make foreign nations more willing to accept our manufactures

It is probable that Free Trade would have come much earlier than it did if it had not been for the Napoleonic wars. As early as 1776 a book had been written in its favour—*The Wealth of Nations*. The author, Adam Smith maintained that England would greatly benefit by making her trade as free as possible. This book had much influence over William Pitt who was Prime Minister from 1783 to 1806 but he was prevented by the war from introducing Free Trade, although he did, in 1786 make a treaty with France by which each country reduced the taxes on the others goods.

After the wars, as we have seen, Protection was once more firmly established by the Corn Law of 1815. Five years later, however, the merchants of London sent to Parliament a petition in favour of Free Trade, and during the next ten years (1820-30) many taxes on foreign goods were either reduced or abolished. The lead in this was taken by William Huskisson, who was President of the Board of Trade from 1823 to 1827. Huskisson lowered the duties which had to be paid on all textile goods (silk, cotton, woollens etc) although England was still making most of these things for herself. In this way smuggling was made so unprofitable that it almost ceased.

In order that England should not lose by this opening of her markets to foreigners, Huskisson made a number of treaties with foreign powers by which both sides, as in the French treaty of 1786, agreed to confer the same benefits on one another's merchants. This policy of exchanging trade benefits is known as Reciprocity.

Thus by 1830 (when Huskisson was killed in a railway

accident) England was on the way to becoming a Free-Trade country. But there was still one commodity which was not free. This was corn, and it was not likely to be freed so long as parliament consisted of nobody but landowners. In 1832, however, the Reform Act admitted



SIGNING THE ANTI-CORN-LAW PETITION IN THE STREETS
(From a print of 1846)

There was at this time in parliament a Tory majority — and the Tory Party consisted almost wholly of land owners and was violently opposed to Free Trade in corn. But the Prime Minister Sir Robert Peel, slowly became convinced that the Corn Laws would have to be abolished. At first for fear of offending his party, Peel left the Corn Laws alone but his government lowered tax after tax on other imports so that by 1845, when Peel had been Prime Minister for four years Britain was more nearly a Free Trade country than ever.

Even now Peel would perhaps have done no more if he had not been driven on by an unforeseen disaster. In 1845 there began in Ireland a terrible potato famine, and the people were threatened with starvation. It was necessary to get food to them as quickly as possible, and the quickest way was to allow corn to be imported into Ireland free. Peel therefore brought in a Bill repealing the Corn Laws in 1846.

By so doing he deeply offended his Tory followers, and most of them refused to acknowledge his leadership. Those who remained loyal to Peel were known as Peelites and for some time they belonged to no party. Eventually, after Peel's death in 1850, they came under the leadership of W. E. Gladstone, and joined the Whigs and Radicals to form a new 'Liberal Party'. The remaining Tories, or Conservatives as they were now generally called, found a new leader in Benjamin Disraeli, afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield.

Since the middle of the nineteenth century Britain has been a Free Trade country, and there is no doubt that Free Trade was an excellent thing for British manufactures in that century. It kept down prices and enabled our manufacturers to sell their goods cheaper

than foreigners in the markets of the world. But at the same time our farmers suffered. Russiau corn, and later Canadiu corn, were imported into this country in such enormous quantities that the farmers here found themselves unable to compete. Many of them, therefore, took to cattle-farming instead of corn-growing; many gave up farming altogether. The result was that, whereas in 1871 there were over a million men working on English farms, in 1921 there were little more than half that number. In the same period it has been calculated that over a quarter of the farming land of the country ceased to be cultivated for cereals.

In 1903 Joseph Chamberlain, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, now known as Dominions, suggested a policy of Tariff Reform, as he called it. He proposed a plan by which the Mother Country and the Colonies were to give a preference to one another's goods by taxing them less. This came to be known as Imperial Preference. The policy was defeated at the general election of 1906.

Again, after the war, the Conservatives proposed, at the election of 1923, that Protection should be re-established, and again they were defeated. A modified form of Protection, however (known as "safe-guarding" because it "safeguards" the British manufacturer from foreign competitors), has been granted to some industries which have been hard hit by the changes following the Great War. But there is as yet no Protection for the farmers because the majority of the people in our country have so far refused to permit taxes to be placed on articles of food.

43—IRELAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH AND NINETEENTH CENTURIES

During the period of the Industrial and Agricultural Revolutions Ireland had very little share in the great changes which were taking place. Her industry and agriculture were very backward. In fact, they had been purposely kept from developing by laws passed in the English parliament. For instance, Ireland, like the colonies, suffered from the Navigation Acts, which hindered her trade. Other laws had prevented the development of a very promising linen manufacture in Ulster, the most northern province of Ireland.

Like Scotland, Ireland at first had a parliament of her own, which she kept till 1800. But this Irish parliament was less powerful than either the English or the old Scottish parliament. All the laws which it passed had to be submitted to the English Privy Council for its approval, and the English parliament claimed the right to pass laws for Ireland.

In 1782, however, through the efforts of Henry Grattan, the Irish parliament obtained its independence, and for the next eighteen years Ireland enjoyed real "Home Rule." But Grattan's parliament was not very successful, and in any case it represented only the Protestants of Ireland. Roman Catholics did not receive the vote till 1793, and even then they were denied the right to sit in parliament. When in 1798, while England was occupied with her deadly war with France, a dangerous Irish rebellion broke out, the English government felt it absolutely necessary to bring about a union of the two countries. This was accomplished in the year 1800. Great Britain and Ireland became a single kingdom with one

parliament, which was to contain thirty-two Irish lords and one hundred Irish members of the House of Commons.

The union was in many ways an improvement for the Irish people, but as long as the Roman Catholics were excluded from the united parliament they were sure to feel discontented. At the time of the union the Prime Minister, William Pitt (the Younger), promised the Irish people "Catholic Emancipation"—that is, the admission of Roman Catholics to the privileges enjoyed by Protestants, especially the right to be elected to parliament—but the king, George III., was foolish enough to forbid Pitt to keep his promise, so that the Irish justly felt that they had been deceived.

Under the leadership of Daniel O'Connell, who himself was a Roman Catholic, a "Catholic Association" was founded which agitated continuously for Catholic Emancipation. In 1828 O'Connell succeeded in getting himself elected to parliament for an Irish constituency, and the English government, not daring to keep him out for fear of an Irish rebellion, granted Catholic Emancipation in the following year.

Thereafter O'Connell started an agitation for the repeal of the union, but he lost influence through his refusal to agree to a policy of violence. A "Young Irish Party" was formed under Smith O'Brien, which attempted a rising in 1848. Smith O'Brien was not a capable leader, and the revolt was easily suppressed by a force of policemen.

In 1868 Gladstone became Prime Minister for the first time. For a long time he had been interested in the Irish problem, and in 1869 he took a step towards its solution by disestablishing and disendowing the Irish State Church. This Church was Protestant, and though

to satisfy the demand of the Irish for political independence. Their leader, Charles Stewart Parnell, led the Irish party so skilfully that parliament was forced to listen to the demands for Home Rule, and at last, in 1886, Gladstone decided to grant it. He introduced a Home Rule Bill, but many of his own party refused to follow him and the Bill was rejected by parliament, as was also another which he introduced in 1893. In 1914 another Home Rule Bill was introduced, and might have become law but for the outbreak of the Great War. It was not until 1922 that Home Rule for Ireland was at last obtained.

Even then it was not quite the Home Rule which the Irish Party had wanted. Part of Ulster, the northern province of Ireland, was inhabited mainly by Protestants, whereas the rest of the island was Roman Catholic. A solution of this difficulty was found by giving the six Protestant counties of Ulster, comprising Northern Ireland, a parliament of their own, so that there are two parliaments in Ireland—that of the "Irish Free State," which sits at Dublin, and that of Northern Ireland, sitting at Belfast.

Further Reading and Reference.

The spiritual aspect of the agitation in Ireland from the late eighteenth century to the twentieth is expressed in the works of W. B. Yeats. The poems of Dora Sigerson Shorter are also relevant to this period.

For the lighter side of Irish life see stories by Charles Lever, George A. Birmingham and others.

44—THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Ireland was not the only part of the British Empire which received Home Rule. It was granted much earlier to our most important colonies. Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand are to day separate nations, with separate representatives on the League of Nations. But at the same time they are still part of the British Empire and their inhabitants call themselves Britons just as much as the inhabitants of Great Britain. In this chapter we are to see how this unusual arrangement has been brought about.

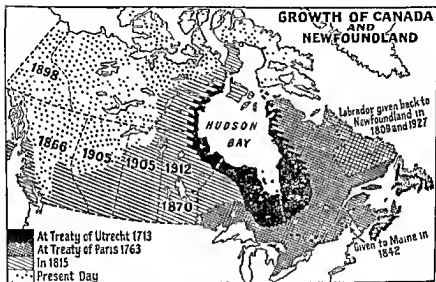
The Dominion of Canada

After the War of American Independence very many people both in Britain and in Canada thought that it would not be long before Canada followed the example of the United States and became an independent republic. This seemed all the more likely because most of the inhabitants of Canada, which had been conquered from the French, were themselves Frenchmen speaking the French language, believing in the Catholic Church, and not caring very much to be ruled by foreigners as they regarded the British.

Gradually, however, as more and more British emigrated to Canada, the balance between the two races became more even, and in order to prevent quarrelling between them an act was passed in 1791 (the 'Canadian Constitutional Act'). This divided the colony into two separate provinces—Upper Canada, where most of the

British lived, and Lower Canada, the original French colony, where most of the Frenchmen lived. Each of these two provinces was given a separate government of its own, and a governor-general was appointed to supervise the doings of both governments.

For some time this arrangement worked satisfactorily,



The Map shows dates on which the Western Provinces were established.

but in 1837 rebellions broke out in both of the Canadian provinces. Lord Durham was sent out to devise a suitable form of government for Canada. His recommendations were written in what is known as the Durham Report. His main proposal was that Canada should receive "responsible government"—that is, that the people should have the right, which the people of England had had ever since the Revolution of 1689, to remove from power any government which displeased them.

In England wrote Lord Durham, 'when a ministry ceases to command a majority in parliament on great questions of policy its doom is immediately sealed and it would appear to us is strange to attempt for any time to carry on a government by means of ministers perpetually in a minority as it would be to pass laws with a majority of votes against them. If Colonial legislatures have frequently stopped the supplies if they have harassed public servants by unjust or harsh impeachments, it was because the removal of an unpopular administration could not be effected in the Colonies by those milder indications of a want of confidence which have always sufficed to attain the end in the Mother Country

This policy whereby the governor general of Canada was to choose his ministers from the party most favoured, from time to time by the people was eagerly carried out by Durham's son-in-law, Lord Elgin, who was governor general from 1847 to 1854. By the end of his period of responsible government was well established.

By the Canada Act of 1867 four provincial assemblies were established one for each of the provinces—Quebec (which was the old Lower Canada), Ontario (the old Upper Canada), Nova Scotia and New Brunswick—while another Parliament was set up to legislate for the whole 'Dominion of Canada' as it was now called. Thus there is now in Canada a parliament (which sits at Ottawa) to make laws for the whole Dominion, and separate legislatures to make laws for each of the provinces and a governor general is placed over them all to represent the king. An arrangement of this kind is called a Federation.

The Commonwealth of Australia.

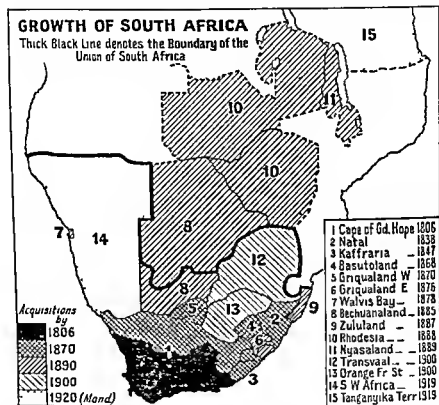
The next of the British dominions to adopt this principle of Federation was Australia, which, like Canada, consists of a number of separate states. There are six of them altogether—Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania. These states, or provinces, were gradually obtaining parliaments of their own at the same time as Lord Elgin was governing Canada, about the middle of the nineteenth century. By 1859 all of them had obtained responsible government except Western Australia, which did so in 1890. Ten years after, Federation was accepted by the whole of the continent, and on the first day of the twentieth century the Commonwealth of Australia was born.

British South Africa.

The history of South Africa in the nineteenth century has been somewhat different from that of the other dominions. Here, as in Canada, there is more than one race to govern, and with their different ideas they are not easy to rule together. There are not only two white races—the British themselves and the Boers, the descendants of the Dutchmen and the French Huguenots who originally colonised South Africa—but also the black natives.

These three races are so exceedingly unlike one another that it was a long time before any satisfactory government could be found at all. The Boers were cattle-farmers who loved a country life and disliked towns; the English, who were traders, preferred town life, and so established towns one after another, while the negroes were mostly quite uncivilised.

The Boers became so dissatisfied with the government of Cape Colony that they decided to leave it in a body. In the thirties thousands of them migrated, with their



families and cattle across the Orange River, and they founded there a republic of their own called the Orange Free State. Some of them went even farther, across the Vial River, and founded another Boer republic—the 'Transvaal'. Here they hoped to carry on their farming without interference from the British.

When later on gold was discovered in 1886 near the

present town of Johannesburg, in the Transvaal, British and others flocked in vast numbers into these mining districts, to the annoyance of the Boers.

Feeling grew worse and worse. The Uitlanders, as the Boers called the immigrants, appealed to Britain, and in 1899, after ineffectual negotiations, the two Boer republics declared war. After three years they were conquered and were annexed by Great Britain. In the meantime lands still farther north had been opened up, mainly through the energy of the British South Africa Company, under the control of Cecil Rhodes, after whom the new territories were called Rhodesia. Thus by 1902 British territory extended beyond the Zambezi.

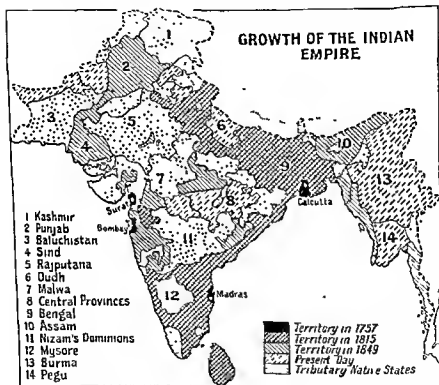
The solution to the problem of government was found when the principle of Federation, which had proved successful in Canada and Australia, was applied also to South Africa. In 1909 an Act of Union was passed, and in the following year the Union of South Africa was established. A governor-general and a central parliament control the whole union, while each of the separate states (which are now called "provinces")—Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal—has a "provincial Council."

India.

Besides these greater dominions the Empire includes many states, such as New Zealand, which is a dominion without Federation, and colonies which are governed directly by the Crown—that is, by the government at Westminster. The greatest of all is India, with its three hundred and twenty millions of people of many different races and religions, some very highly educated and some hardly civilised at all.

268 British Empire in the Nineteenth Century

At the beginning of the eighteenth century India was ruled by the feeble though despotic "Mogul Emperors." Largely owing to their inefficiency the country, very early in the century, broke up into many small states,



each with a separate ruler. In this condition of disunion it was easy for the English East India Company to conquer large tracts of the country, as we have seen already, and by the end of the eighteenth century the company was the greatest power in India.

In 1784 an act was passed by the British parliament which divided the government between the company and

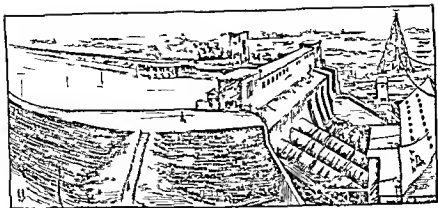
the British government. At the head was to be a governor-general, acting under the supervision of a "Board of Control" at Westminster. This arrangement lasted until the Indian Mutiny of 1857.

India was then put under the rule of a "Viceroy," who acted for the monarch; the Board of Control was replaced by the India Office, with the Secretary of State for India at its head. The East India Company was abolished altogether. In 1877 the Indians were reminded of the glories of the old Mogul Empire by a law which made the queen "Empress of India," so that India was once more an "Empire." In 1911 the capital of India was removed from Calcutta, the old headquarters of the East India Company, to Delhi, the old capital of the Mogul emperors.

In 1919 the Government of India Act went a long way towards granting the demands of the better educated Indians for a share in the government. A parliament was established in India, elected, for the most part, by various classes of the people; and at the same time separate councils were granted to the eight chief provinces. Thus the principle of Federation has been applied to India, but complete self-government has not been granted, as there are many subjects on which the viceroy need not consult the wishes of the parliament.

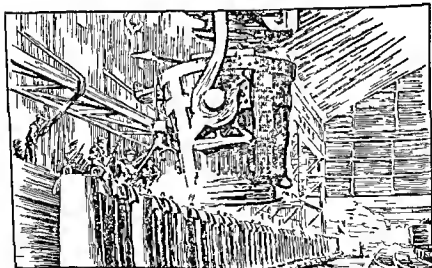
Further Reading and Reference.

Our Empire Overseas, by H. W. Palmer, and *The Story of Our Empire*, by P. R. Salmon, are useful class reference books.



HARNESSING WATER FOR ELECTRICITY
(Drawing 1911/10)

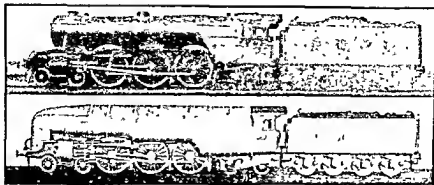
The waters of the Rhine are being utilised for the needs of the Irish Free State.



THE OPEN HEARTH STEEL MAKING PROCESS
(Drawing 1910/10)

About the middle of the nineteenth century the manufacture of mild steel was much improved by the invention of the Open Hearth Process. The above illustration shows the molten metal about to be tilted into moulds.

Steel made by the Open Hearth Process is used for ship and boiler plates, framework for buildings, machinery, rails, etc.



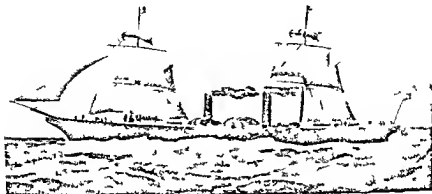
TYPES OF MODERN HIGH POWER LOCOMOTIVES.
 Three Cylinder Engine, "Flying Scotsman."
 Four Cylinder Compound Engine.
 (Courtesy of L.N.E.R.)

45.—A HUNDRED YEARS OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION.

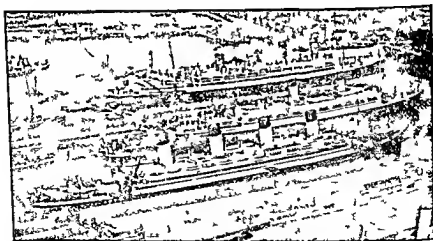
At the beginning of the nineteenth century the quickest way of travelling from place to place was on horse-back, and the next quickest, and for most people the most convenient, was by stage-coach. About 1830 the roads were so improved by Telford and Macadam that coaching attained a high state of efficiency. There were coaching services along most of the main roads between the biggest towns, but their average speed was something like ten miles an hour, so that a long journey, such as that from Edinburgh to London, took several days to accomplish.

Railways.

A hundred years ago all this was altered by the railways, of which the first was opened in 1825. In 1829 Stephenson's "Rocket" reached a speed of thirty miles



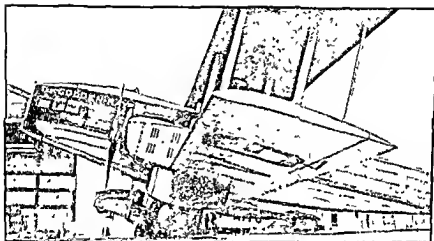
AN EARLY CUNARD IN 1866—THE PERSIA
The first iron steamer on the Atlantic service (Photo by photo)



MODERN ATLANTIC LINERS IN DOCK AT SOUTHAMPTON
The Olympic, Homeric and Aquitania (Aerolineas)

necessary owing to the growth of steamship traffic. A century ago the sailing vessel was still the chief kind of ship, and dependent as it was on the winds, its speed was very limited. But already in 1803 there was a steamship (the *Charlotte Dundas*) plying on the Firth of Clyde, in

1818 the service between Dover and Calais was begun; in 1838 the first steamship crossing of the Atlantic was accomplished, and in 1839 was founded the Cunard Line—the first company to run regular services of liners across the Atlantic. It was followed thirty years later by the White Star Line, and now the oceans are traversed in all directions by regular liner services.



A PASSENGER AEROPLANE ON THE LONDON PARIS ROUTE.
(Courtesy of Air Union.)

So far the latest means of transport is the aeroplane, which is already a commercial success, though it is only about thirty-five years since the first aeroplane was constructed and less than a quarter of a century since the first really successful flight was made. The principal company running air liners ("Imperial Airways Limited") was established in 1924, and their great air station at Croydon handles as many as two thousand passengers a week.

There are, however, other means of communication

which enable messages to be sent and so make it unnecessary for people to travel when it is inconvenient for them to do so

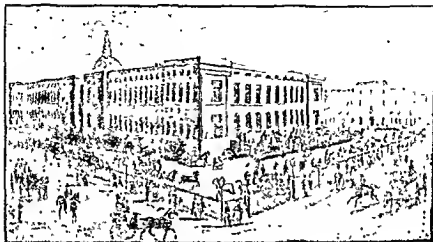


PASSENGERS IN THE AEROPLANE SHOWN ON PRECEDING PAGE
(Courtesy of Air Union.)

Postal Communication

A century ago the only means of communication of this kind was the letter and even this was not available to the majority of the population because many could not afford the expense of postage and others could not read. In those days it was the receiver and not the sender of the letter who had to pay for its carriage. Sir Walter Scott once told a friend —

My bill for letters seldom comes under a hundred and fifty pounds a year and as to coach parcels—they are a perfect innovation. One morning last spring I opened a huge lump of a dispatch without looking how it was addressed when, lo and behold! the



GENERAL POST OFFICE, LONDON, IN 1832
(From an old print)

contents proved to be a manuscript play by a young lady of New York, who kindly requested me to read and correct it; and on inspecting the cover I found that I had been charged five pounds odd for the postage."

In 1840 Sir Rowland Hill managed to convince parliament that if the postage was reduced to one penny per letter, and charged to the sender instead of the receiver, there would be no loss to the post-office, since the increase in the number of letters sent would make up the difference. Other improvements made the post-office still more helpful—one of the chief being the erection of pillar-boxes.

In recent years the post-office has taken over the transmission of messages by telegraph, telephone, and wireless telegraph. At first telegraphs were used only on railways, where they were first set up in 1837. Soon, however, the invention began to be used for the sending

of messages of all sorts and in 1851 was established the most famous of all news services Reuters Agency

Broadcasting is only an extension of telegraphy—in this case of course of wireless telegraphy. The first



BROADCASTING A PRACTICAL LESSON TO SCHOOLS
(By means of the British Broadcasting Corporation)

wireless message across the English Channel was sent in 1899 by Marconi who three years later succeeded in doing the same across the Atlantic.

Finally there is the telephone which is nowadays essential to every business man and to many homes. There are over a million telephones in Great Britain which nevertheless is far behind many other countries in this respect. Yet it is only a little over half a century since the first telephone was invented (1876) by Graham Bell who died in 1922.

Further Reading and Reference

Transport by J. I. Griffith deals with roads, railways, etc. in an excellent manner. See also *The World of Transport* (C. Hall)

whose works illustrate in many ways the interests of the time. In his poems about King Arthur (*The Lady of Shalott*, the *Morte D'Arthur*, and the long series of poems called *Idylls of the King*) he gave voice to the interest which people in the nineteenth century were feeling in the affairs of the Middle Ages, while in such poems as *In Memoriam* he discussed the problems of science and religion which were puzzling all his contemporaries.

Another great Victorian poet, too, was keenly interested in these scientific and religious problems. This was Matthew Arnold; but the chief message of his poetry was that the bustle and hurry of modern life were harmful to men and gave them no time to make the best of their lives, and he urged them to return to the more restful manners of old, when there was less greed for wealth and more contentedness with life as it was:—

“Moderato tasks and moderato leisure,
Quiet living, strict-kept measure,
Both in suffering and in pleasure—
’Tis for this thy nature yearns.”

Robert Browning, on the other hand, taught that every man could make his own happiness, and that there was no reason why we should not grow even happier as we grew older:—

“Grow old along with me;
The best is yet to be.”

Most of his poetry is full of this cheerfulness, though his way of writing makes much of it very difficult to read. There is, however, an easy poem of his which most of us know (*The Pied Piper of Hamelin*) which illustrates his cheerfulness. It also illustrates his interest,

not so much in the Middle Ages, like most of his contemporaries but in the period of the Renaissance and many of Brownings poems are about artists or musicians who lived then

Poets of modern times reflect in various ways the spirit of their age. Some of them believe that poetry should take every aspect of life for its province, irrespective of whether it is ugly or beautiful. Poems which represent this attitude are John Masfield's *The Everlasting Mercy* and Rudyard Kipling's *Barrack Room Ballads*. Other poets seek a way of escape from an age of machines into a world of imagination. Such poets are William Butler Yeats and Walter de la Mare.

The Great War produced a large number of young poets. Many of them were killed, and it is difficult to estimate how great might have been their work had they lived. Foremost among them was Rupert Brooke, known chiefly as the author of five sonnets written in 1914, and of *Grantchester* a poem expressing his love for a little village in Cambridgeshire. The following lines indicate the spirit with which young men of his type accepted the war —

If I should die think only this of me
That there's some corner of a foreign field
That is for ever England

Dramatic Literature

The ten years which preceded the Great War produced a body of dramatic literature in quality comparable only with that of the days of Queen Elizabeth.

Amongst the playwrights who came into prominence at this time were George Bernard Shaw, John Galsworthy

and J. M. Barrie. The last-named was acclaimed a master of humour and pathos, but it was left to Shaw and Galsworthy to realise the importance of the theatre for the purpose of setting forth and calling public attention to serious social problems. In some of Shaw's plays, such as *The Doctor's Dilemma* and *Man and Superman*, so brilliant is his wit, so stimulating his argument, that even in the longest speeches he succeeds in holding the interest of his audience.

Galsworthy's *Justice* showed up the evils of solitary confinement in prisons, and certain prison reforms introduced not long afterwards may have been in some measure due to this play. *The Silver Box* is another noteworthy example of his work for the theatre.

The Newspaper.

It is probable that the Victorian age can show more great names in literature than any other—except, perhaps, the Elizabethan age. But there was another and less great (though not less influential) sort of reading which developed with tremendous rapidity in the nineteenth century; this is what we call “periodical literature”—that is, magazines and newspapers. At the beginning of the century newspapers were few, and could be afforded only by those who were fairly well-off. The chief reason for this was the government tax of fourpence on every newspaper, which, of course, kept up the price. In 1836 this duty was reduced to one penny, and in 1855 it was abolished altogether; and since then newspapers have multiplied, and many were sold before the Great War of 1914–18 at as little as a halfpenny each.

Until 1861 there was another tax which had as bad an influence as the Newspaper Duty. This was the Paper

Duty which made it impossible to produce books at a price which the poorer people could afford. In 1861 this duty was abolished (mainly through the efforts of Gladstone) so that book producing has grown as greatly as newspaper producing. Now many thousands of new books are published every year in Great Britain alone.

47—EDUCATION IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were probably not more than about three hundred real schools in Great Britain, though there were a large number of "Dames' schools, many, if not most of which were kept by uneducated women incapable of teaching properly. In 1791 Sunday Schools were started by Robert Rukes—not for the purpose of teaching religion as such schools do now, but to provide a little ordinary education for poor children.

Early in the nineteenth century two societies were founded to provide education. Both of them were Church societies—the British and Foreign School Society (1808) for the Nonconformists, and the National Society (1811) for the Church of England. These societies did some very good work, but they were poor, and so in 1833 the government made an annual grant of a considerable sum of money to assist them.

This was the first occasion on which the government of the country had taken any notice of education, but from this time the government became more and more actively interested in it. In 1839 a special committee was set up to supervise education in the country, and

partly from the local rates and partly from the Board of Education

The Education Act of 1918 made arrangements for all children to pass from the Elementary School to a Continuation School until they were sixteen, or else to spend half their time until they were eighteen, at work and half at the Continuation School. This act also tried to make it possible that secondary, as well as elementary education should be free to all. But these things have so far proved too expensive, and the act has not been put fully into force.

Meantime secondary education has developed enormously. At the beginning of the twentieth century the only places where it was possible to obtain an education more advanced than the Elementary Schools could give were the old Public Schools and Grammar Schools, of which there were only about three or four hundred in existence. Since then a large number of Council Secondary Schools have been established—usually called Municipal or County Secondary Schools.

A hundred years ago there were only two universities in England (Turkey was the only other country in Europe with so few), though there were four in Scotland and one in Ireland. Moreover not everyone could go to Oxford or Cambridge. At first those who were not members of the Church of England were excluded, afterwards, on being admitted, they were refused degrees. This however, has now been altered, and all non Anglicans have equal privileges with others at the two oldest English universities.

Newer universities, too, have been established so that now there are twelve in England, four in Scotland three in Ireland and one in Wales.

48.—WORKERS, WAGES, AND PRICES.

Co-operation.

Nowadays we are all familiar with co-operative stores. These are owned by societies of working-people mainly, and the profits are divided among the members, not in proportion to the money they have invested in the business, but according to the amount of their purchases at the co-operative shops.

The first really successful co-operative store was founded at Rochdale, in Lancashire. There in 1844 twenty-eight men joined together to set up a shop, contributing one pound apiece, and sharing the profits. Though it started in such a small way it prospered rapidly in spite of the fact that the shop opened only two evenings in the week and sold only clothes and food.

Thereafter the co-operative movement gained ground quickly. Co-operative societies were established in other towns, and finally in 1863 a "Co-operative Wholesale Society" was set up for the whole of England, followed in 1868 by one for the whole of Scotland. The Co-operative Wholesale Societies have their capital provided by the local co-operative societies, to whom they distribute "dividends" in proportion to their purchases just as the local societies do to their customers. Moreover, these wholesale societies have undertaken very fully those functions which the Rochdale pioneers aimed at—"the manufacture of articles," and the arrangement of "the powers of production, distribution, education," etc. They have built over a hundred factories which provide goods only for co-operative societies. They send their goods to

such societies all over the world and see that their customers share in the profits

Trade Unions

A little over a century ago Trade Unions were illegal "Combination Acts, as they were called, had been passed



IN A MODERN FACTORY
(By permission of Messrs Cadbury Bros Ltd.)

making it illegal for workmen to combine for any purpose, especially for the purpose of increasing their wages. In 1824 these Combination Acts were repealed, and thus it became lawful for unions of working men to be established.

At first only small unions were founded among the employees in single factories. Later it was seen that they would be much better able to influence their employers if the unions included those engaged in an industry all over the country, and thus there came into existence such unions as the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and the National Union of Railwaymen to

mention only two of many. Later still all these unions joined together to form a great organisation—the Trades Union Congress—of which the unions of all the trades are members. During the last hundred years, largely through the activities of the unions, wages and hours and other conditions of the working-class have greatly improved.

In the old days before the Factory Acts, factory employment was very dangerous, machinery was unprotected, and serious accidents were often happening. Even after the worst faults had been removed by the Factory Acts some accidents were bound to take place, as occur in even the best factories. In 1880 the Employers' Liability Act was passed, making the employer responsible for any accidents which occurred on his premises; and since then (in 1897, 1900, and 1906) Workmen's Compensation Acts have secured that injured workmen shall receive compensation.

The Labour Party.

At the end of the nineteenth century the unions began a new form of activity. Instead of influencing merely the employers they decided to influence also the government and the state—by having their own members of Parliament. At the election of 1906 a number of Labour members were returned to Parliament, and ever since that time there has been a Labour Party in the House of Commons. In 1924 the first Labour Government took office.

Health and Welfare during the Nineteenth Century.

We have already noticed the unhealthy conditions which prevailed in the now manufacturing towns in the

early nineteenth century. The chief reason for these was lack of proper drainage. There were no underground sewers to remove the rubbish—nothing more than the old single gutter in the middle of the street cleared none too regularly by the dustman. In very many towns which had a river near the sewage was emptied into it. As often as not the same river was used to supply the water of the town and sometimes the town authorities were foolish enough to get the water from a point in the river below the spot where the sewage was emptied into it. London itself was the worst offender in this respect.

After the passing of the Municipal Reform Act in 1835 (page 249) most towns built proper drains in their streets, with sewage farms at a distance to get rid of the filth in a scientific and healthy way. An increasingly large number of towns have found it wise to get their water, not from the neighbourhood of the dirt and waste of the town itself, but from a distance away—and in the case of the largest cities many miles away. Thus Manchester gets most of its water from the Lake district, Birmingham and Liverpool from the middle of Wales, and Glasgow from Loch Katrine among the Perthshire mountains.

Health is also improved by the clearing away of slums and the making of open spaces and parks, which enable the townsfolk to get a proper supply of fresh air.

The Public Health Act of 1848 made it compulsory for all towns to come into line with one another in sanitary matters. In 1872 and 1875 further Public Health Acts were passed, and in 1919 a Ministry of Health was established.

united By 1861 all the Italian states except Rome and Venice had agreed to be ruled by one king, in 1866, Venice joined, and at last in 1870 the Pope was compelled to surrender Rome, which then became the capital of Italy, as in the days of the Roman Empire The Pope, the Head of the Catholic Church, bitterly resented his being forced to give up his "Papal" kingdom, and for many years all the popes were unfriendly to the Italian kings But in 1929 the independence of the Vatican territory (within the city of Rome) was recognised, and the kingdom of Italy was reconciled with the Church.

Unity of Germany.

In the middle of the nineteenth century Germany too was a jumble of independent and semi-independent states—Austria, Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, and very many others Of these the two strongest were Austria, which had in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries been the leader of the German states, and Prussia, which had become so powerful under Frederick the Great (1740-88) that it was now the rival of Austria The question was, Would Austria or Prussia succeed in uniting the whole of Germany and become the head of it? In 1866 this question was settled when, in a war lasting only seven weeks, Prussia decisively beat Austria and was recognised as the chief state in Germany, Austria being excluded from the Federation of German states.

The man chiefly responsible for this victory by Prussia was Bismarck, its Prime Minister from 1862 to 1890. Two years before he had attacked Denmark and taken from her the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which would be extremely useful to Prussia owing to their situation on the Baltic Sea Four years after the Austro-Prussian

other European nations, Germany saw no other method but to take some of them—especially in Africa. In North Africa she came into collision with France (where the war of 1870 and the loss of Alsace Lorraine had left bitter memories); in South Africa with Britain, and in Persia with Russia. At the same time Russia and Austria quarrelled about the Balkan States, which each wished to control, and so the Great War came to be almost inevitable whatever particular cause actually began it.

The Great War.

Unfortunately for Germany and Austria their ally Italy refused to join them in the war, and a few months later actually turned against them. So did most other countries until Germany, Austria, Turkey (with whom Germany had been friendly), and Bulgaria were fighting against a score of nations all over the world.

Nevertheless it took four years to beat them, because they were well prepared, whereas France, Britain, and then allies were far from ready in 1914. Moreover, Germany and Austria lay together, and Turkey and Bulgaria were easy to reach, so that their troops and supplies could be moved easily wherever they were needed, while their enemies were separated so badly that it was almost impossible for Russia to have any communication with her two chief allies, Britain and France.

There were two principal "fronts" in the war—the Eastern Front, where Germany and Austria were fighting Russia, and the Western Front, where they were against France and Britain. There was important fighting, too, in the north of Italy (chiefly between the Austrians and the Italians), in Gallipoli (chiefly between Britain and Turkey), and at Salonika (chiefly between Britain and

Bulgaria). Farther east our army in Egypt succeeded in conquering Palestine and Syria.

In Europe things did not go so well for us and our allies. In 1917 Russia was beaten and had to surrender at the Peace of Brest-Litovsk. The Czar was deposed, and Russia became a republic. Germany was therefore able to concentrate her armies on the Western Front. There in 1918 she made a final endeavour to break

other European nations Germany saw no other method but to take some of them—especially in Africa. In North Africa she came into collision with France (where the war of 1870 and the loss of Alsace-Lorraine had left bitter memories) in South Africa with Britain and in Persia with Russia. At the same time Russia and Austria quarrelled about the Balkan States which each wished to control and so the Great War came to be almost inevitable whatever particular cause actually began it.

The Great War

Unfortunately for Germany and Austria then Italy refused to join them in the war and a few months later actually turned against them. So did most other countries until Germany, Austria, Turkey (with whom Germany had been friendly) and Bulgaria were fighting against a score of nations all over the world.

Nevertheless it took four years to beat them because they were well prepared whereas France, Britain and their allies were far from ready in 1914. Moreover Germany and Austria lay together and Turkey and Bulgaria were easy to reach so that their troops and supplies could be moved easily wherever they were needed while their enemies were separated so badly that it was almost impossible for Russia to have any communication with her two chief allies Britain and France.

There were two principal fronts in the war—the Eastern Front, where Germany and Austria were fighting Russia and the Western Front where they were against France and Britain. There was important fighting too in the north of Italy (chiefly between the Austrians and the Italians) in Gallipoli (chiefly between Britain and Turkey) and at Salonika (chiefly between Britain and

Bulgaria). Farther east our army in Egypt succeeded in conquering Palestine and Syria.

In Europe things did not go so well for us and our allies. In 1917 Russia was beaten and had to surrender at the Peace of Brest-Litovsk. The Czar was deposed, and Russia became a republic. Germany was therefore able to concentrate her armies on the Western Front. There in 1918 she made a final endeavour to break through to Paris, although the British and French now had the help of some American troops, America having joined against Germany in 1917 owing to the practice of the latter of sinking liners (usually with Americans on board) with her submarines. This German advance was at last stopped by Foch, the allied commander-in-chief, and in the autumn of 1918 the Germans were routed and driven back. Their position was made practically hopeless by the surrender of Bulgaria and Turkey in September, and of Austria a month later. On November 11, 1918, an armistice was signed, and peace was made at Versailles in July 1919.

By this peace an attempt was made to rearrange the states of Europe in accordance with their nationalities. Alsace and Lorraine were handed back to France, and the non-Austrian people in Austria became separate states (especially Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia). Germany herself had become a republic at the end of the war, and Austria soon followed her example.

Progress towards Peace—the League of Nations.

Probably the most important thing done at Versailles in 1919, however, was the establishment of the League of Nations, a plan originated by the American president, Woodrow Wilson. The object of the League is to prevent

war is far as possible in the future. To this end it has its headquarters at Geneva, where representatives of most of the nations in the world attend to discuss difficult international questions. Members of the League promise not to take up arms until the League has done every thing possible to arrive at a peaceful settlement. Most of the countries of the world now belong to the League but unfortunately President Wilson's own nation refused to support his plan and America is not a member.

After the War

After all wars there are troubles. Usually they include the spread of diseases of one sort or another, and the period after the war of 1914-18 was as bad in this respect as the period after the Napoleonic war, though the advance of medical science since the latter made things much better than they might have been. Nevertheless there was in the winter of 1918-19 an epidemic described as influenza throughout the world which killed in four months more people than the war had killed in four years.

Disease, however, was not the only consequence of the war. Trade had been upset, much money had been spent on munitions, which were good only for destroying and for being destroyed. The destruction had gone on for four years. As a result most of us must be content to be poorer than we should have been if there had been no war, and the same is true of all the belligerent nations.

Further Reading and Reference

Simple books on modern Europe are—*Before the Great War, How Italy became a Nation* and *Four Dreamers of World Power*, all published by McDougall's. *The Story of the League of Nations* (K. E. Innes) is very useful.



THE CHRIST OF THE ANDES—A SYMBOL OF INTERNATIONAL PEACE.

This statue stands on the Uspallata Pass, in the Andes, and was erected in 1902, to commemorate the settlement, by arbitration, of a dispute between Argentina and Chile. On the base of the statue are inscribed the words:

"Sooner shall these mountains crumble into dust than the peoples of Argentina and Chile break the peace which, at the feet of Christ the Redeemer, they have sworn to maintain."

50—TO DAY

The Advance of Science

With the advent of the nineteenth century began a period of scientific research and discovery unparalleled in the world's history. Every branch of science has shared in the advance and British scientists have taken a foremost place in furthering it.

Geology—About 1830 Sir Charles Lyell showed that the surface of the earth did not owe its present form to any gigantic convulsions of nature as had hitherto been generally believed but was brought about in the course of ages by gradual changes. These among others consisted in the formation of mountains and valleys by the slow shrinking of the earth's crust the scooping out of valleys also by glaciers and rivers and the creating of land at river mouths by deposits of matter washed down from the hillsides and land surfaces. These changes are still going on. Since Lyell's time further research has only tended to confirm his views.

Biology—Another scientific revolutionary was Charles Darwin who in 1859 startled the world by the publication of his *Origin of Species by means of Natural Selection*. Up to this time it had been generally held that every species of animal had been separately created and had remained the same ever since. Darwin argued that this was not so but that in the course of time by a number of small changes caused by changes in environment a species might be altered into something quite different and that by this means nature is even now creating new species. This theory of *Evolution* is now generally accepted and has been extended to botany and other sciences.

Medical Science.—Some of the most far-reaching changes of modern life have been brought about by the advance of medical science during the past hundred years.

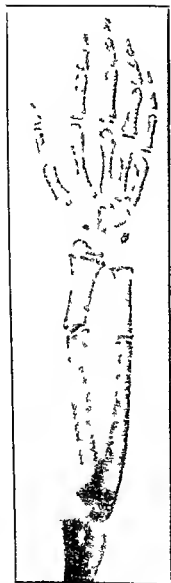
At the close of the eighteenth century, Edward Jenner had made the wonderful discovery that smallpox could be prevented by vaccination.

The most revolutionary discovery of the nineteenth, however, was probably that of the existence of germs or microbes in the atmosphere, visible only through the microscope, some harmful and others useful. Louis Pasteur, a French scientist, was one of the first to recognise their importance. While investigating the souring of beer and milk when exposed to the air, he came to realise that this was due to the presence of germs. Since then other observers have found various microbes to be the cause of many infectious diseases.

The cause of these diseases having been found, the discovery of a means of prevention naturally followed. This in many cases is secured by "inoculation," that is, an injection of the microbes or germs through the skin, which induces a mild form of the disease and therefore renders a person more or less immune.

Up to the middle of the nineteenth century anaesthetics (or drugs which cause unconsciousness) were unknown, and surgical operations were attended by great risk owing to the pain and shock caused to the patient. The use of chloroform, the first satisfactory anaesthetic, was discovered by Professor J. Y. Simpson of Edinburgh in 1847.

While the effects of pain were thus removed, operations were still only too frequently followed by gangrene, which often proved fatal. In 1865 a surgeon in Glasgow, Joseph Lister, hearing of the discoveries of Pasteur, conceived the idea that gangrene was caused by the infection of the



X RAY PHOTO OF FRACTURED
ARM
(Royal Infirmary Edinburgh)

wound by microbes, and could be prevented by the use of disinfectants. Under this treatment, known as antiseptic surgery, gangrene became practically unknown. The work of Simpson and Lister has revolutionised surgery, and the modern operating theatre, with its absolute cleanliness and sterilised instruments, has been the means of saving much life and suffering.

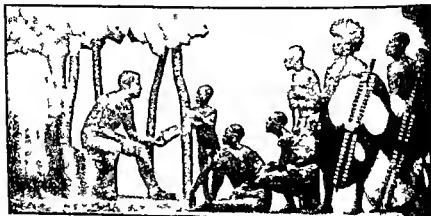
In 1895 a German, Rontgen, discovered a hitherto unknown radiation—the X rays. These rays are invisible, and can pass through various substances which are opaque to ordinary light, but fail to penetrate bone or metal.

When, for instance, an injured limb is exposed to the X rays, the shadow of the bones can be cast upon a photographic plate, and fractures of the bones, or a piece of metal embedded in the flesh, can be immediately detected.

Astronomy—Great advances have been made in our knowledge in this fascinating science within the last fifty years. It is now supposed that suns, or stars, have been formed by a gradual concentration of the atoms of the

spaces on the map of the world, such as the interior of Africa and Australia and round the Poles

Africa—About the middle of the nineteenth century the chief task which explorers set themselves was the discovery of the source of the Nile. This was accomplished by Sir Richard Burton, J. H. Speke and James A. Grant who found it in Lake Victoria. Meanwhile,

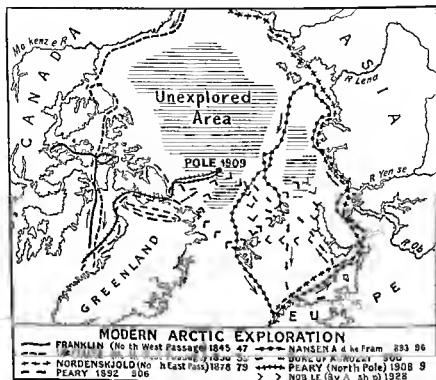


LIVINGSTONE IN AFRICA

(From the tablet by C. I. O. Pilkington & Jackson—property of the Scottish National War Memorial & Livingstone Trust.)

Dr. Livingstone, the greatest of all African explorers, had begun a systematic exploration of South Central Africa. Largely in consequence of his labours there is little yet left to discover, and in a geographical sense, the dark continent is no longer dark. The locomotive and the motor car now traverse regions which little more than fifty years ago were totally unknown.

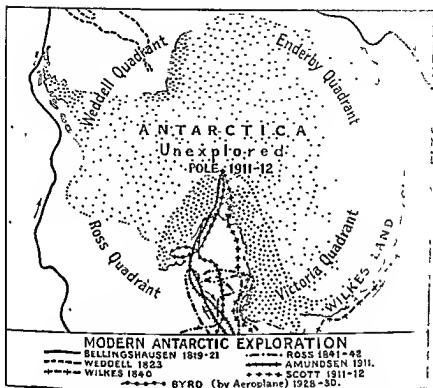
Australia—Here, too, there is little left to discover. The early explorers such as Charles Sturt, Edward John Eyre, and the brothers Gregory made known the districts near the coasts, and later adventurers, as John McDougal Sturt,



That Greenland was an island was proved by the American Lieutenant Peary and others when they succeeded in rounding the northern end. The opinion that the interior was covered by an ice sheet has been confirmed by the several expeditions which have crossed it, the first by Nansen in 1888.

Meanwhile attention had been directed to the North Pole itself. After various attempts sometimes ending in tragedy it was reached by Peary in 1909. The North Pole has been found to be surrounded by an ice-bound sea.

The south Polar regions being more remote and even more inaccessible than those of the north have not



received the same attention as the latter. Nevertheless many attempts have been made at exploration, the first by Captain James Cook in 1773. In the nineteenth century other explorers, while discovering various parts of the coast of the great continent which is supposed to surround the Pole, were invariably turned back by the impenetrable ice-barrier. At length, in January 1912, Captain Scott reached the Pole, only to find that he had been forestalled a few weeks previously by the Norwegian explorer Amundsen. Unfortunately, on the return journey Scott and his four companions perished.

By Polar exploration much valuable knowledge has

been gained in the sciences of biology, geology, magnetism, but especially in meteorology. Meteorological stations have been established in both the north and south Polar regions. One result of the study of meteorological



A model showing the head dress of Shub ad, a princess of Ur of the Chaldees, supposed to have reigned at a period between 3500 and 3200 B. C.
(British Museum.)

conditions in the Antarctic is that it is now possible to foretell, *two years beforehand*, what kind of season to expect in the Argentine.

Exploring the Past.

Our knowledge of ancient history has been much increased in recent years by excavations of tombs and

the sites of buried cities. In 1922 there was unearthed at Thebes the tomb of Tutankhamen, an Egyptian king who reigned about 1360 B.C. The great number of articles of furniture, dress and jewellery, which were found in the tomb along with the mummy showed that Egypt at that time must have reached a very high state of civilisation.

In Lower Mesopotamia (the ancient Babylonia or Chaldea) excavations in quite recent years on the sites of two ancient cities have led to remarkable discoveries. A civilisation existing at least thirty-five hundred years before the time of Christ has been revealed at Ur, the "Ur of the Chaldees," and the supposed birthplace of Abraham. At Kish a civilisation of 3000 B.C. has been unearthed. These discoveries have greatly extended our knowledge of Babylonian civilisation.

Recent investigations in Central Asia have revealed that in the Tarim basin, which lies in what is now the Takla Makan Desert, great climatic changes have taken place. Where' once there was, in remote ages, a flourishing population, there is now mostly a waterless waste. More interesting still are the results of digging in the Shamo Desert or Gobi. Here, too, where is now a waste, traces of Paleolithic and Neolithic man have been found, and even evidences of Metallic culture. But what is most interesting of all is the unearthing of vast quantities of the fossilised remains of animals of the Reptilian period. These show, some venture to think, that Central Asia may have been the cradle of animal life.

Further Reading and Reference.

The Last Secrets, by John Buchan, is an inspiring book of stories of modern explorers. Also *Heroes of Exploration*, Kerr & Cleaver.

51.—THE LESSONS OF HISTORY

Thus ends the story of two thousand years. Have those two thousand years been years of progress? If we mean by progress, material progress, then the question can be answered in the affirmative. We are better off than our ancestors, we have more amusements and higher pleasures, more comfort, longer lives than they had. The life of the individual in this island is pleasanter than it was two thousand years ago. But if we mean by progress improvement in well-doing and in happiness, then the question is more difficult to answer. History cannot answer it outright; it can only help us to think out an answer for ourselves. Let us ponder the words of Macaulay:—

footman, when farmers and shopkeepers breakfasted on loaves the very sight of which would raise a riot in a modern workhouse, when to have a clean shirt once a week was a privilege reserved for the higher class of gentry, when men died faster in the purest country air than they now die in the most pestilential lanes of our towns, and when men died faster in the lanes of our towns than they now die on the coast of Guiana. We too shall, in our turn, be outstripped, and in our turn be envied. It may well be, in the twentieth century, that the peasant of Dorsetshire may think himself miserably paid with twenty shillings a week; that the carpenter at Greenwich may receive ten shillings a day; that labouring men may be as little used to dine without meat as they now are to eat rye bread; that sanitary police and medical discoveries may have added several more years to the average length of human life; that numerous comforts and luxuries which are now unknown, or confined to a few, may be within the reach of every diligent and thrifty working man. And yet it may then be the mode to assert that the increase of wealth and the progress of science have benefited the few at the expense of the many, and to talk of the reign of Queen Victoria as the time when England was truly merry England, when all classes were bound together by brotherly sympathy, when the rich did not grind the faces of the poor, and when the poor did not envy the splendour of the rich."

Time-Chart.

The Eighteenth Century.

DATE	BRITISH HISTORY	FOREIGN HISTORY
1701	Union of English and Scottish Parliaments 1707 Riot Act 1715 Jacobite Rebellion 1715	War of Spanish Succession 1702 13 Treaty of Utrecht 1713
1720	South Sea Bubble Walpole Prime Minister 1721 42 Workhouse Act 1723 Bakewell stockbreeder born 1725	War with Spain 1718 20 War with Spain, 1726 29
1730	Jones begins farming Kays Flying Shuttle 1733	War with Spain 1739
1740	Anson's voyage round the World 1740 44	War of Austrian Succession 1740 48
1750	Jacobite Rebellion 1745 46	Seven Years War 1756 63
1760	Many Enclosures made Bridgewater Canal 1759 72 Hargreaves Spinning Jenny 1764 James Watt improves steam engine 1769	Treaty of Paris, 1768
1770	Cook explores Aust coast. John Howard and Prison Reform, 1773 Crompton's Mule 1779	War of American Independence, 1775 83
1780	Gilbert Act, 1782 Grattan's Parliament, 1782 1800 Mail Coaches 1784 Cartwrights Power Loom 1785	American Declaration of Independence 1776
1790	War with France 1793 1802	French Revolution begins, 1789 Bonaparte First Consul 1799 Napoleon ruler of France 1799-1815

Time-Chart.

The Nineteenth Century (*continued*).

DATE	BRITISH HISTORY	FOREIGN HISTORY
1860	Many Protective duties abolished	Kingdom of Italy, 1860
	Paper Duty repealed, 1861	American Civil War 1861-65
	Second Reform Act Canada Act, 1867	Austro Prussian War, 1866
	Town Housing Act, 1868	
1870	Local Government Board, 1871	Franco Prussian War, 1870-71
	School Boards established, 1871	German Empire, 1871
	School Boards in Scotland, 1872	
	Ballot Act, 1872	
	Invention of Telephone by Bell, 1876	
	Compulsory Education Act, 1876.	Treaty of Berlin, 1878
1880	Third Reform Act, 1884-85	Triple Alliance—Germany, Austria, and Italy, 1882
	First Home Rule Bill, 1886	
	Free Education in Scotland, 1889	
1890	Free Education in England, 1891.	
	Parish Councils in Scotland, 1894.	
	Röntgen Rays discovered, 1895.	
	Wireless Telegraphy discovered, 1896	Franco-Russian Alliance, 1896.
	Workmen's Compensation Act, 1897.	
	Boxer War, 1899-1902.	

	1000	1100	1200	1300	1400
Statesmen	Laufing Anschin	Becket Langton	De Montfort Ireland		
Reformers		St Francis		Wycliffe Huss	
Authors		Writers of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle		Petrarch Boccaccio	Chaucer
Scientists			Roger Bacon		
Explorers			Marco Polo		

1500	1600	1700	1800	1900
	Wolsey Cranmer Burleigh	O Cromwell Louis XIV. Walpole	Frederick the Great Washington Robespierre Pitt Napoleon	Disraeli Gladstone Lincoln Bismarck Peel
Savonarola	Luther Calvin Knox		Wesley Howard Wilberforce	Shaftesbury
			Blake Wordsworth	
	Erasmus Spenser	Milton	Richardson	Scott Stevenson Coleridge
	Tyndale Sidney	Bauman	Fielding	Byron Bridges Shelley
	Coverdale Bacon	Dryden	Johnson	Keats Conrad Carlyle
	More Marlowe	Defoe	Rousseau	Tennyson
	Shakespeare	Swift	Gray	Browning Thackeray Dickens
Malory	Jonson	Voltaire	Goldsmith	Ruskin
	Herrick	Pope	Burns	Meredith Swinburne Hardy

TRANSPORT.	MOVEMENTS OF OPINION.	RELIGION.	LANGUAGE
Making of Roads by Romans		Paganism and Christianity	Latin (Roman Britain)
		Paganism	
		Spreading of Christianity	Anglo-Saxon
Increase in River Transport			Danish Intermixture
	Age of Chivalry	The Crusades	Norman French, Latin, and English
			Triumph of English
	The New Learning	Lollardism	
	New Spirit of Enterprise	The Reformation	
	Age of Reason	Puritanism	
Stage Coach	Romantic Revival		
New Roads	Trade Unionism	Evangelicalism	Continuous additions from Foreign Languages
Canals	Laissez Faire		
Railways and Steamships	Christian Socialism	Oxford Movement	
Motor Transport	Education	High and Low Church Movements	
Airships	State Intervention		
Aeroplanes			

Individual Study.

The Welding of the Nation

Pages 13-28

- 1 How do we gain information regarding prehistoric beings and their methods of life? Give some details of what has been discovered and where
- 2 In what ways did life in the New Stone Age differ from life in the Old Stone Age?
- 3 Write an account of a day in your life as though you were a Briton before the coming of the Romans
- 4 Write notes on the following Julius Caesar, Agricola, Antoninus, Alfred the Great, Ethelred the Redeless, Knut, Kenneth Macalpin
- 5 What do you understand by the following? Legion, Phoenicians, Gauls, Picts, Scots, Danelaw, Witan, Strathclyde, Danelaw
- 6 Draw a sketch map of Roman Britain showing the chief towns and roads
- 7 Write an account of the stages of the Roman conquest of Britain
- 8 How did Britain benefit by Roman rule?
- 9 How did Anglo-Saxon England become a united kingdom?
- 10 How did Scotland become a united kingdom?

Pages 28-48

- 1 What do you understand by thegn, eorl, ceoel, marl, moot, folkland, boeland, Hundred, compurgation, ordeal, wergild, Witan, fyrd, commendation?
- 2 Draw plans of a typical Anglo-Saxon *tun*, cultivated fields in Anglo-Saxon times
- 3 Make a list of things which you have already used to-day which you could not have used in Anglo-Saxon times
- 4 From what sources do we gain our knowledge of Anglo-Saxon life?
- 5 In what ways was life in Anglo-Saxon England inferior to life in Roman Britain?
- 6 How was justice administered in Anglo-Saxon times?
- 7 What different assemblies of the people were there in Anglo-Saxon times, and what did each do?
- 8 Summarise the results of the Danish invasions.

9. What do you know of the following? Pope Gregory the Great, Augustine, Ethelbert, Columba, Bede, Druids, Valhalla, Synod of Whitby, Brunanburh, Maldon.
10. Describe the religion of (a) the Britons before the arrival of the Romans; (b) the Anglo Saxons before their conversion to Christianity.
11. Show the stages by which Anglo Saxon England became Christian.
12. What do you know of (a) monasteries in Anglo Saxon times. (b) Anglo Saxon literature?
13. Who wrote the story of Caedmon? What do you know of the writer?

The Growth of the Constitution.

Pages 49-76.

1. What were the Normans in origin? How did they gain possession of Normandy?
2. Give an account of the events which led to the Norman conquest of England.
3. Discuss whether William I. or Henry I. was the greater king.
4. What were the chief changes which took place in England under the Norman kings?
5. How did the Norman kings deal with the Church?
6. What do you know of the following? Edward the Confessor, Godwin, Harold, Hereward the Wake, William II, Robert of Normandy, Anselm, Stephen, King's Court, Battle of the Standard, Treaty of Wallingford.
7. Explain the following terms: feud (fief), tenant in chief, sub-tenant, homage, sokeman, tournament.
8. Make a plan of your town or village as it might have been in 1086.
9. Explain carefully what is meant by feudalism.
10. How was *Domesday Book* compiled, and for what purpose was it intended?
11. How did the Norman Conquest affect the English language?
12. Explain the following terms: manor, demesne, bailk, bailiff, steward, serf, villein, cottar, freeman, virgate, boon days, amercement, pardoner.
13. Write an account of an imaginary day on a medieval manor.
14. What were the chief differences in the appearance of villages in the Middle Ages and now?

- 22 What games were prohibited by Edward III and why?
- 23 What do you understand by (a) lazar house, (b) sester?

Pages 126-139

- 1 Who were the following? Owen Glendower, Warwick the King maker
- 2 Make a time chart, using the dates 1300-1400, to illustrate 'Storm and Stress in England' in the fifteenth century
- 3 Outline the chief events of the reign of Henry IV
- 4 What treaty was made after the battle of Agincourt? What were its chief terms?
- 5 Give an account of the life and work of Joan of Arc
- 6 What were the Wars of the Roses fought about? Which side do you think won?
- 7 Why were the following important? Douglas, Percy, James I, James IV, John Major, Pedro de Ayala
- 8 Why were the following battles important? Neville's Cross, Flodden, Solway Moss
- 9 Make a time chart to illustrate the history of Scotland between the dates 1328 and 1550
- 10 What was the 'Auld Alliance' and why was it finally broken?
- 11 What were the chief difficulties of the Scottish kings in the later Middle Ages?
- 12 Write an account of the development of the Scottish Parliament in the later Middle Ages
- 13 What do you learn from the laws of the time about life in medieval Scotland?
- 14 What do you know about the industries of medieval Scotland?
- 15 What do you know about the literature of Scotland in the later Middle Ages?

Social and Intellectual Progress

Pages 140-170

- 1 Who were the following? Dante Petrarch, Chaucer Boccaccio, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo Gutenberg, Caxton, Colet, Erasmus Wychiffe Luther, Calvin, Knox, Columbus, Copernicus, Kepler, Harvey, Newton
- 2 Make a time chart of events connected with the Renaissance (dates 1300 1600)

3. What were the chief scientific discoveries between 1500 and 1700?
4. What was the Renaissance, and how did it affect Europe?
5. What influence had the invention of printing on the people of Europe?
6. Why was the lead in exploration taken by Portugal and Spain, and why did these countries fail to keep their lead?
7. Learn by heart the extract (pages 149-150) from Froude's *History of England*.
8. Write notes on: the Emperor Charles V., Francis I. of France, Philip II. of Spain, Sir Thomas More, Thomas Cromwell, Cranmer.
9. What were: Benevolences, Star Chamber, Balance of Power?
10. Make a time chart to illustrate the history of England from 1485 to 1550.
11. In what ways was the reign of Henry VII. important?
12. Write an account of the life and work of Wolsey.
13. Write an account of the Reformation in England.
14. Say what you know of the following: the Enclosure Movement, Pilgrimage of Grace, Ket, Houses of Correction, John Winchcombe, Weavers' Act, Statute of Apprentices, Pilgrim Fathers, Navigation Acts.
15. What were the chief hardships of the poor in the sixteenth century, and how were they relieved?
16. Write an essay on "The Woollen Industry" in the later Middle Ages.
17. What were the chief reasons for the decay of the Guilds at the end of the Middle Ages?
18. Show how British trade expanded in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
19. Who were: John Bull, Dowland, Spenser, Sir Philip Sidney, Marlowe, Ben Jonson, Bacon?
20. What did Tennyson mean when he called the Elizabethan age "spacious"?
21. Make a list of famous characters from Shakespeare's plays, saying from which play each comes.
22. Write an account of the life of Mary, Queen of Scots.

The Growth of Parliamentary Power

Pages 171 203

- 1 Explain the importance of the following Stafford Laud Cromwell
- 2 What were the chief causes of quarrel between king and parliament in the seventeenth century?
- 3 What were the four clauses of the Petition of Right? Why was it so important?
- 4 What was the English Revolution and why was it important?
- 5 What do you know about the following? Book of Sports, Masque Comus Henry Lawes Sir Christopher Wren, Inigo Jones, Steele, Addison The Spectator, yeoman assizes, coffee houses
- 6 What were the chief differences between British towns in the seventeenth century and now?
- 7 Describe a street in your town as you think it might have appeared in the seventeenth century
- 8 Write essays on
A day in the country in the seventeenth century
Sir Roger de Coverley
- 9 What were Monopolies Darnley Scheme, Security Act, Mercantile System?
- 10 When and why was the National Debt started and in what way was it connected with the Bank of England?
- 11 Explain why the Scottish Union took place in 1707
- 12 What do you know of (a) the Fifteen, (b) the Forty five?
- 13 Write an essay on Walpole
- 14 What were the chief changes introduced into the government of England during the Whig rule in the eighteenth century?

Economic Change and the Rise of Democracy

Pages 204 233

- 1 What do you know of the following? Stocking frame flying shuttle Spinning Jenny water frame, Crompton's mule power loom Carron Coalbrookdale Ironbridge Worsley Brindley, turnpike, Macadam Telford David Dale
- 2 The development of expensive machinery doomed the domestic system Discuss this

3. Write an account of the life and work of . James Watt, George Stephenson, Robert Owen.
4. Write an essay on: "Coal, Iron, and Cloth in the eighteenth century ."
5. What do you know of (a) road development during the Industrial Revolution, (b) railway development in the first half of the nineteenth century?
6. In what ways was the Industrial Revolution in Scotland different from that in England?
7. What do you know of the following? Common fields, Townshend, Norfolk rotation, Bakewell, Colling.
8. What were the reasons for the enclosure movement of the eighteenth century? How was it brought about? In what ways was it different from the enclosure movement of the sixteenth century?
9. Make a time-chart to show the chief inventions and improvements in industry and agriculture in the eighteenth century.
10. What do you know of the following? Voltaire, Rousseau, Burke, Marlborough, Clive, Warren Hastings, Wolfe, Nelson, Wellington, Napoleon.
11. What is meant by "the second hundred years' war with France"?
12. What do you know of the life and writings of . Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, Byron, Scott?
13. In what different ways were men's minds turned towards liberty in the later eighteenth century?

Pages 233-248.

1. What do you know about the following? Laissez faire, Luddites, "Political Register," Peterloo.
2. Outline the chief general differences between medieval and modern trade.
3. Summarise clearly (a) the good results, (b) the bad results of the Agricultural Revolution.
4. What were the chief hardships of the poorer classes in the early nineteenth century (a) in their work, (b) in their homes?
5. Make a time chart of events between the years 1790 and 1820, using separate columns for (a) Causes of Depression, (b) Measures of Repression, (c) Other important events.
6. Write accounts of the life and work of each of the following: Francis Place, William Wilberforce, Shaftesbury.

9. What were the general effects of the Reform of 1832?
10. Write an essay on Parliamentary Reform in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.
11. What part was taken in the movement for Parliamentary Reform by (a) Gladstone, (b) Disraeli?
12. What were the chief defects of the Irish Parliament in the eighteenth century?
13. Summarise the causes, terms, and results of the "Irish Union."
14. What were the chief difficulties with regard to land in Ireland in the nineteenth century?
15. What do you know of the Irish Home Rule Movement?

Pages 262-286.

1. What do you know of the following? Lord Durham, Lord Elgin, Cecil Rhodes.
2. Write notes on: Mogul, Viceroy, Delhi.
3. Make a time-chart to illustrate the history of the British Empire in the nineteenth century.
4. Trace the growth of self-government in each of the Dominions.
5. What do you know about the Durham Report?
6. Trace the growth of British control over India since 1750.
7. Make a time-chart to illustrate the developments of the last century in transport and communication.
8. How far can canals compete for traffic with the railways and roads?
9. Write essays on :

The Coming of Ocean Liners.
Letters and the Post Office in the nineteenth century.
10. What do you know about the following? Rowland Hill, Marconi, Graham Bell, suburbs, arterial roads, Suez Canal, Panama Canal, Manchester Ship Canal, Croydon, Reuter.
11. Write essays on the following subjects :

Great novelists of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.
Great poets of the nineteenth century.
12. Make a time-chart to illustrate the history of education in the nineteenth century.

- 13 What part did the following men play in the development of education? Raikes, Matthew Arnold
- 14 What were the terms and importance of the Education Act of 1870?
- 15 Write an essay on education in the nineteenth century

Pages 287-317

- 1 What do you know of the following? The Rochdale Pioneers, the Co-operative Wholesale Society, Combination Acts, Employers Liability Act, Workmen's Compensation Acts, the Labour Party
- 2 Write an essay on "Co-operation in the nineteenth century"
- 3 Draw a map or plan showing how water is brought to your town
- 4 How and why does the Government control the health of the country?
- 5 Who or what were the following? Abraham Lincoln, Cavour, Mazzini, Garibaldi, Foch, Woodrow Wilson, Austro-Prussian War, Peace of Frankfurt, Armed Peace, Peace of Brest-Litovsk, Peace of Versailles
- 6 Trace the chief stages in the growth of (a) Italian, (b) German unity
- 7 Write an essay on the League of Nations
- 8 In what ways have modern scientific discoveries simplified the task of the explorer?
- 9 Write an account of the life and work of Dr Livingstone
- 10 What have recent discoveries taught us about the Canadian North West? Whose name is connected with these discoveries?
- 11 Write an essay on polar exploration
- 12 What is meant by "exploring the past"? What has recently been learned from such exploration?

Reference Books for Teachers.

General Histories.

G. M. Trevelyan—*A History of England* (Longmans). Ramsay Muir—*A Short History of the British Commonwealth* (Philip). C. R. L. Fletcher—*An Introductory History of England* (Murray, 5 vols.) Methuen's *History of England*, in Seven Volumes (ed. Oran). Longman's *Political History of England* (ed. Hunt and Poole, 12 vols.). Hume Brown—*A History of Scotland* (3 vols.) Cambridge Univ. Press.

"Classical" Histories.

J. A. Froude—*A History of England, 1529 to 1588* (in cheap reprints). S. R. Gardiner—*A History of England, 1603 to 1658* (Longmans). Macaulay—*History of England* (cheap reprints). W. E. H. Lecky—*A History of England in the Eighteenth Century* (Longmans).

Social and Economic History.

G. O. Meredith—*Outlines of English Economic History* (Pitman). W. Cunningham—*Growth of English Industry and Commerce* (Cambridge University Press). *Medieval England*—(ed. H. W. C. Davis Clarendon Press). A. Birnie—*An Economic History of Europe, 1760 to 1930* (Methuen). I. F. Giant—*The Social and Economic Development of Scotland to 1603*. J. Mackinnon—*Social and Industrial History of Scotland* (Blackie). D. C. Calthrop—*English Costume* (Black). Traill and Mann—*Social England* (Cassell, 6 vols.)

Imperial History.

H. E. Egerton—*Origin and Growth of Greater Britain* (Clarendon Press). J. A. Williamson—*Short History of British Expansion* (Macmillan). L. C. A. Knowles—*Economic Development of the British Empire Overseas* (Routledge). *Cambridge History of the British Empire*.

Source Books.

R. B. Morgan—*Readings in English Social History* (Cambridge University Press). Bland, Brown and Tawney—*English Economic History: Select Documents, 1000-1832* (Bell). *English History from Original Sources* (Black). *Bell's English History Source Books*.

Miscellaneous.

Teachers and World Peace—League of Nations Pamphlet, No 114. Muir, Philip and McElroy—*Philips' Historical Atlas. Heroes of the Nations* (Putnam). *Twelve English Statesmen* (Macmillan). *English Men of Action* (Macmillan).

Index.

- Act of Settlement, 245
 Addison Joseph, 183, 186, 189, 279
 'Addled' Parliament, 172
 Aeroplanes, 275
 Agincourt, Battle of, 127, 139
 Agricultural Revolution, 185, 205, 221-224
 Agriculture, 32-34, 66, 68 71, 75, 157, 257
 Aicuin, of York, 42
 Alexander III, 90, 95
 Alfred the Great, 27, 44, 48
 Amerciament, 74
 America, Discovery of, 145, 169
 American Civil War, 312
 American War of Independence, 229, 230, 231, 310
 Angles, 26 28
Anglo Saxon Chronicle, 44, 53, 58
 Annates, Act of, 169
 Anne Queen, 193
 Anselm, Archbishop, 67
 Anson, Commodore, 310
 Apprentices, Statute of, 161, 170
 Archery, 123 134, 135
 Arkwright, Sir Richard, 206
 Arnold, Matthew, 281, 285
 Artificers, Statute of, 161
 Assize of Arms, 78, 148
 Assize of Measures, 118
 Assizes, 79, 186
 "Auld Alliance," the, 91, 130, 132, 168
 Australia, 265, 302 310, 313
 Austria, 228, 292, 293 312
 Austrian Succession, War of, 228, 310
 Ayala, Pedro de, 135, 137

 Bacon, Sir Francis, 165, 172
 Bakewell, Robert, 224, 310
 Balance of Power, 152
 Ball, John, 102, 103, 105, 120
 Balliol, Edward, 130.
 Balliol, John, 90, 91, 130
 Ballot Act, 312.
 Bank of England, 196, 197, 199
 Bannockburn Battle of, 91, 93, 139
 Beaconsfield, Earl of, 240, 242, 256, 279
 Beaumont and Fletcher, 165.
 Becket, Thomas, 80, 81, 138
 Bede, Venerable, 43, 45
 Belgian Independence, 311
 Bell, Graham, 278, 312.
 Bell, Henry, 311
 "Benevolences," 151
 Bennett, Arnold, 280
 Beowulf, Story of, 29-31, 44
 Berlin, Treaty of, 312
 Bernicia, 28
 Bible, the, 121, 142, 165, 169, 199
 Bill of Rights, 178
 Black Country, 209, 212, 213
 Black Death, 99, 100, 105-107, 139, 192
 Board of Trade, 254.
 Boccaccio, 141.
 Bodland, 34
 "Boon" Days, 72, 73
 Boudicca (Boadicea), 25.
 Boulton, Matthew, 212
 Bretigny, Peace of, 139.
 Bright, John, 235
 Brindley, James, 214
 Britain, Early, 13-24, 28, 39
 Britain, Roman, 22-26, 48
 Broadcasting, 278
 Bronte, Charlotte, 280
 Bronze Age, 19
 Brooke, Rupert, 282
 Browning, Robert, 281.
 Bruce, Robert, 91, 130, 133.
 Bunyan, John, 183
 Burghlev, Lord, 163
 Burke, Edmund, 202, 228
 Byron, Lord, 233

 Cabinet Government, 201
 Cabot, Sebastian, 147
 Cade's, (Jack), Rebellion, 139
 Caedmon, 43, 45-47
 Calcedonia, 26
 Calvin, John, 143
 Canada, 147, 199, 229, 262 264, 303, 312.
 Canals, 213, 214, 216, 273, 310.
 Carham, Battle of, 28, 94
 Cartwright, Edmund, 206, 310
 Catholic Emancipation, 246, 259, 311.
 Cattle Farming, 224, 257.

- Cave Men, 17.
 Cavour, Count, 291.
 Caxton, William, 139, 141.
 Celts, 19, 28.
 Chamberlain, 56, 95.
 Chamberlain, Joseph, 257.
 Chancellor, 56, 95.
 Charles I., 172-175, 199; C. II., 176, 199.
 Charles V., of Spain, 132.
 Charter of Liberties, 55.
 Chartists, 239, 240.
 Chaucer, Geoffrey, 121, 139, 141.
 Chevy Chase, 130.
 Christianity, Introduction of, 39-42.
 Church, the, 40, 42, 52, 80, 81, 84, 85, 94, 120, 142, 143, 169.
 Church and State, 52, 57, 60, 84, 88, 152-155.
 Church of England, 153, 154, 169.
 Church of Scotland, 171, 313.
 Circuit Courts, 79, 186.
 Civil War, the, 174, 175, 199.
 Clive, Robert, Lord, 229.
 Coal, 208, 209, 212, 242-244, 252.
 Coal Mines Legislation, 242, 311.
 Cobbett, William, 235.
 Cobden, Richard, 255.
 Coffee Houses, 188-190.
 Coinage, 77, 78, 159.
 Coleridge, Samuel Taylor, 232.
 Colet, Dean, 141, 169.
 Colhag, Charles, 224.
 Colonies, 145, 161, 162, 176, 194, 199, 262-269, 303.
 Columbus, Christopher, 146, 169.
 Combat, Trial by, 62, 79.
 "Combination" Laws, 235, 288, 311.
 Commonwealth, the, 175, 199.
 Purgation, 34, 35, 79.
 Congress of Vienna, 311.
 Constable, 56, 95.
 Constantinople, Capture of, 139.
 Constitutions of Clarendon, 80, 138.
 Cook, Captain James, 305, 310.
 Co operative Stores, 287.
 Copernicus, Nicolas, 148, 149.
 Copyhold, 105, 157.
 Coru Laws, 253-256, 311.
 Coroners' Rolls, Extract from, 125.
 Corporation Act (1661), 249.
 Cotton Industry, 207.
 County Councils, 250, 285.
 Coverdale, Miles, 169.
 Cowper, William, 203.
 Crécy, Battle of, 91, 139.
 Crimean War, 311.
 Crompton, Samuel, 206, 310.
 Cromwell, Oliver, 175, 176.
 Cromwell, Thomas, 157.
 Crusades, 55, 82-83, 138.
 "Curia Regis," 56.
 Cynegulf, 44.
 Dale, David, 220.
 Danelaw, 27.
 Danes, 27, 37.
 Dante, 140.
 Darby, Abraham, 211.
 Darnley Scheme, 197, 199.
 Darwin, Charles, 298.
 David I., 37, 94; D. II., 91, 130.
 Declaration of Indulgence, 177, 199.
 Declaration of Rights, 178.
 Defoe, Daniel, 183.
 De rating and Local Gov. Act, 313.
 Diaz, Bartholomew, 130, 145.
 Dickens, Charles, 279.
 Disraeli, Benjamin, 240, 252, 256, 279.
 Divine Right of Kings, 172.
Domesday Book, 52, 60, 61, 138.
 Domestic Industries, 160.
 Douglas, Gawain, 137.
 Drake, Sir Francis, 161, 170.
 Drama, the, 165, 282, 283.
 Druids, 39.
 Dunbar, Battle of, 175.
 Dunbar, William, 137.
 Durham, Lord, 263, 264.
 Dutch Republic, 170.
 East India Company, 162, 170, 268, 269.
 Edict of Nantes, Revocation of, 199.
 Education, 125, 169, 284-286, 312, 313.
 Edward the Confessor, 27, 50.
 Edward I., 87-91, 139; Ed. II., 91; Ed. III., 91, Ed. IV., 128, 129; Ed. V., 129; Ed. VI., 153, 167.
 Egypt, 307, 313.
 Einstein, Albert, 301.
 Electricity, 270, 301.
 "Elot, George," 280.
 Elizabeth, Queen, 154, 170, 171.
 Employers' Liability Act, 289.
 Enclosures, 157, 159, 169, 222, 224-226, 310.

Erasmus 142 169
Estates Scottish 133
Lithelred the Redeless 27 48 50
Evesham Battle of 87 138
Exploration and Discovery 143-147
302-307
Factories 160 206 207 234, 241 243,
248
Factory Acts, 241 311
Faluse Treaty of, 81, 138
Falkn. Battle of 91
Feudal System, 52 58 60, 78, 85 88
140 151
Fisher, Iohn, 153
Flodden Battle of, 132, 169
Folk moot 36
Football 123 181
Foresters, 119
Fox Charles James 202
France 293 294, 311, 312
Franchise Extension of, 238, 240 313
Francis I of France 152
Franco Prussian War, 312
Franco-Scottish Alliance, 91, 130, 132,
169
Frankfurt Peace of, 293
Lambton Sir John, 303
Frechold 103 157
Freemen 31, 61, 72 73 78 85
Free Trade 253 254 256
French Revolution, 226, 230, 310
Froude J A., 149, 163, 166
Fyrd, 78.
Gael (Gauls) 19
Gahico, Gahico, 148 170
Galsworthy John 289, 232 283
Games and Sports, 123 180 181
Garibaldi, Giuseppe, 291
Gas, 311
Gaskell, Mrs., 251 252, 271 280
George I., 201, G. II., 201 G. III.,
202 G. IV., 202
German Empire 292 312
Gibb, 228
Gilbert Sir Humphrey, 161
Gilberts Act 215 247, 310
Gible, 109 116, 160
Gills Scottish 13, 176.
Glacial or Ice Age, 14
Glasstone W. E., 253, 253.
Gloucester, Statute of, 133.

Godwin, Earl, 50
Grand Remonstrance, 199
Grattan, Henry, 258, 310
Great Council 56 85
Great War 293-295
Greece Independence of, 311
Gunpowder, 124, 149
Habeas Corpus Act, 199
Halidon Hill, Battle of, 91, 93
Hanseatic League, 145
Hardy, Thomas, 280
Hargreaves, James, 206, 310
Harold, King, 49, 51
Harvey, William, 140, 199
Hastings, Battle of, 49, 138
Hastings, Warren, 229
Hawkins, Sir John, 161
Health, Public, 191, 192 234, 247,
250 252, 289, 290, 313
Henry I., 53, H. II., 77 82 H. III.,
86 87 H. IV. 126 127 H. V.,
127, H. VI. 127, H. VII., 129,
151, H. VIII., 151-153, 160
Henryson, Robert, 137 -
Hill, Sir Rowland, 277
Housing Acts, 312, 313
Howard, John 310
Hudson's Bay Company, 197
Huguenots, 143, 193
Hundred Moot, 34
Hundred Years War, 91, 103 124
Hunt William 236
Huskisson, William 254
Huss, John 139, 142.
Imperial Airways, 275
Imperial Preference, 257
India, 162 169 229, 267 269 311 313.
Industrial Revolution, 204-213 233 234
" " in Scotland 220,
221
Industries in 17th century, 190 191
Interdict, the, 84
Ireland, 81 92 170, 173 256 258 261,
310, 311, 313
Irish Church Disestablishment, 273
Irish Free State, 261, 313
Iron Age 13
Iron and Steel, 209 213, 270
Italy, 291, 292, 312
Jacobs, 260, 310

- Miracle Plays 113-116
 Mise of Lewes, 87
 Model Parliament, 88, 138
 Mohammed Death of, 48
 Monasteries the, 42, 43, 153-158, 169
 Monopolies 194
 Montfort, Simon de 86, 87, 138
 Moot hall 34
 More Sir Thomas, 141, 153
 Morris William 233
 Mortmain Statute of, 88, 138
 Motor Traffic 272-273
 Municipal Gov., 248-250, 285, 290.
 Muscovy Company, 162
 Music, Elizabethan, 164
 Mysteries, 113-116
 Napoleon, 240-241, 311
 Napoleon III, 293
 National Covenant, 199
 National Debt, 190, 193
 National Health and Unemployment Insurance, 313
 Parliament, Scottish, 133, 134, 198, 200
 Party System, 201
 Pasteur, Louis, 299
 Peasants Revolt, 92, 103-105, 139.
 Peel, Sir Robert, 250, 256
 Pelham, Henry, 201
 Peninsular War, 230
 "People's Charter, 239
 Personal Government, 57, 92
 Peterloo, 235, 311
 Petition of Right, 173, 199.
 Patriarch, 140
 Philip II of Spain, 156, 170.
 Physicians, 22
 Picts, 26-28
 Powder, Court of, 119
 Pilgrim Fathers, 161, 199
 Pilgrimage of Grace, 158
 Pitt, William, the Elder (Earl, of Chatham), 201, 202
 Pitt, William, the Younger, 202, 234, 259
 Place, Francis, 236

- Telford, Thomas 216 271
 Tenchebrau, Battle of '6
 Tennyson, Alfred Lord 233 280, 281
 Teutons, 26, 28 40
 Thackeray Wm M 280
 Theatres, 180
 Thegn, 34, 37
 Thirty nine Articles 150 170
 Three-fifths' System, 80 89 77, 222, 223
 Tithes (Tenths) 73
 Toleration Act 178
 Tonnage and Poundage 172
 Tournaments 62
 Towns growth of, 37 38 97 107 109,
 161, 188-192, 213, 214, 221, 234,
 238 248 249 251, 252, 290
 Townshend, Lord, 224, 310
 Trade, Development of, 110
 Trade Foreign, 38, 143-148, 161-163,
 193 195
 Trades Disputes Act, 313
 Trade Unions 288 289
 Trading Companies, 162, 163
 Trafalgar, Battle of 230
 Transport Modern, 271 278
 Treaty of Union, 198
 Trevithick, Richard, 217
 Triple Alliance, 312
 Triple Entente 313
 Trollope Anthony, 280
 Troyes, Treaty of, 127, 129
 Turkey Company, 102
 "Twelfth Day, 182
 Two field System, 69
 Tyler, Wat, 103
 Tyndale William M^d
 Union of the Crowns, 167
 Union, Treaty of, 198
 United States of America, 231, 291, 311
 Universities, 136, 286
 "Ur of the Chaldees," 307
 Urban District Councils, 250, 285
 Utrecht, Treaty of, 310
 "Vagabonds," 157
 Vatican 292
 Versailles Treaty of, 295, 313
 Villages, 64, 65, 67, 109, 184-186
 Villains, 61, 72, 73, 103, 105, 157.
 Vinci, Leonardo da, 141
 Virgate, 72
 Voltaire, François M A 227
 Wales, 53, 89, 90, 126, 138
 Wallace, William 91
 Wallingford, Treaty of, 57
 Walpole, Sir Robert, 196, 200, 201,
 228, 310
 Warbeck, Perkin, 151
 Wars of the Roses, 128, 129, 139, 151
 Warwick Earl of, 128, 129
 Waterloo, Battle of, 230, 311
 Watt, James, 212, 217, 310
 Weavers' Act 160
 Weaving Industry, 205, 206, 310
 Weelkes, Thomas, 164
 Wellington Duke of, 230
 Wells, H G, 280
 Wet gold, 35
 Westphalia, Peace of, 199
 Whitby, Synod of, 42, 48
 Wilberforce, William, 238
 William the Conqueror, 27, 49, 51 54
 William the Lion, 81, 90
 William II (Rufus), 55
 William III, Prince of Orange, 177, 178
 Wilson, Woodrow, 205
 Winchcombe, John, 159
 Wireless Telegraphy, 278, 312
 Witon, 27, 36, 56
 Witchcraft, 123
 Wolf of Badenoch, 131
 Wolfe, General, 229
 Wolsey, Cardinal, 152, 169
 Woollen Industry, 87, 89, 160, 169, 207,
 213
 Worcester, Battle of, 175
 Wordsworth, William, 232
 Workmen's Compensation Act, 289, 312,
 313
 Wren Sir Christopher, 182, 192
 Wycliffe, John, 120, 139, 142
 X rays, 300, 312
 Yeats W B, 282
 Yeomen, 184, 185 225
 Young, Arthur, 215
 Zwingli, Huldreich, 143